

Library Trends

*Building Library Resources
Through Cooperation*

RALPH T. ESTERQUEST, *Issue Editor*

January, 1958

Library Trends

A Publication of the University of Illinois Library School

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Each issue is concerned with one aspect of librarianship. Each is planned with the assistance of an invited advisory editor. All articles are by invitation. Suggestions for future issues are welcome and should be sent to the Managing Editor.

Published four times a year, in July, October, January, and April. Office of Publication: University of Illinois Library School, Urbana, Illinois. Entered as second-class matter June 23, 1952, at the Post Office at Urbana, Illinois, under the act of August 24, 1912. Copyright 1958 by the University of Illinois. All rights reserved.

Subscription price is \$5.00 a year. Individual issues are priced at \$2.00. Address orders to Subscription Department, University of Illinois Press, 207 Administration East, Urbana, Illinois. Editorial correspondence should be sent to LIBRARY TRENDS, University of Illinois Library School, Urbana, Illinois.

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VOLUME 6 • NUMBER 3

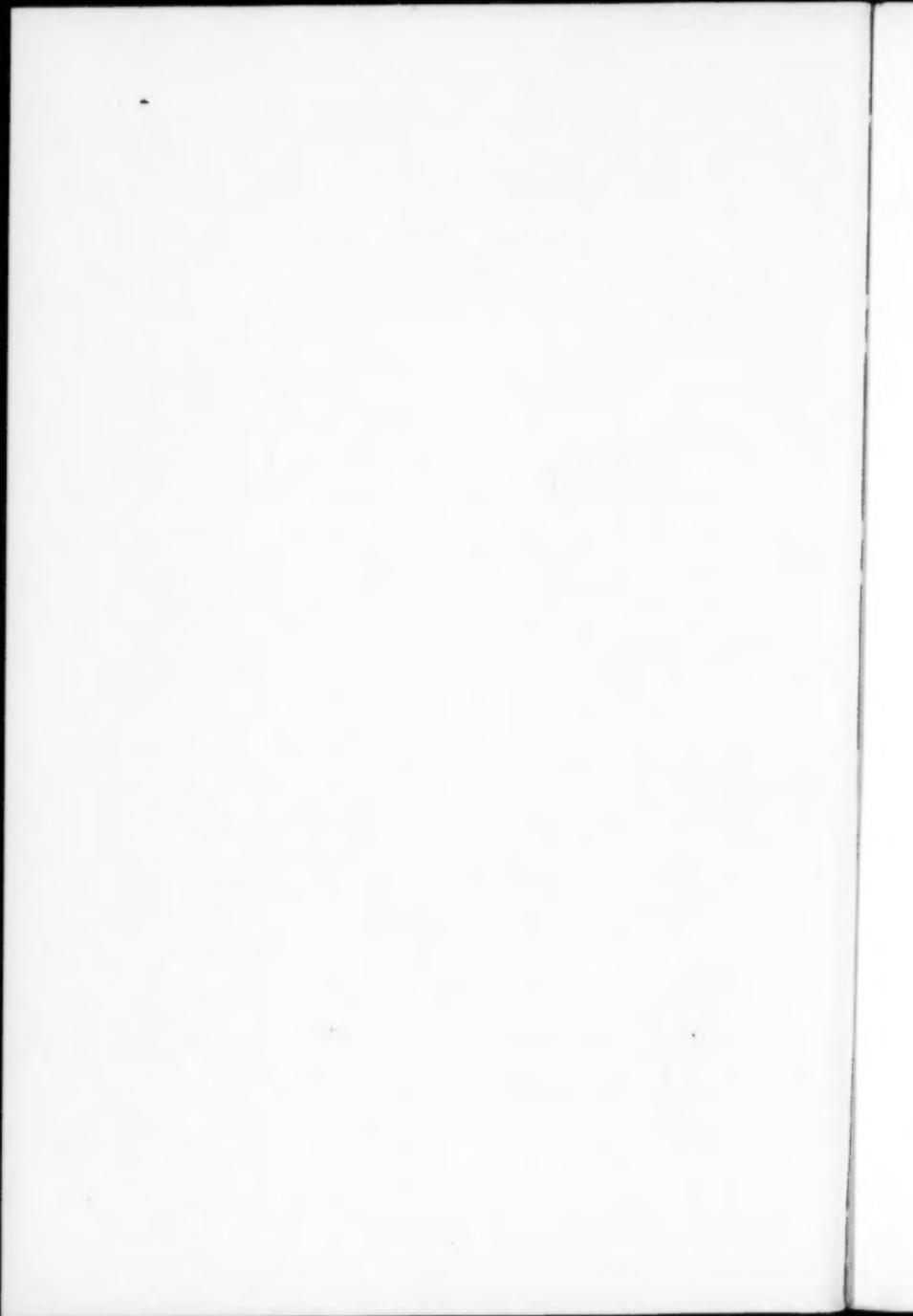
JANUARY, 1958

Building Library Resources Through Cooperation

RALPH T. ESTERQUEST, *Issue Editor*

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Introduction

RALPH T. ESTERQUEST

LIBRARY COOPERATION is at a crossroads. During the last fifty years we have developed in the United States and in other countries a variety of devices for locating and making use collectively of the library resources which exist in our many individual institutions. Today we recognize that these devices are not enough since they do not include any mechanism which insures that needed resources are acquired in the first place by one or more libraries. We are coming to understand that we must take positive steps to bring into our libraries those resources needed now or in the future which will not be acquired if libraries continue to base their acquisitions programs exclusively on their own individual needs or interpretations of needs. Increasing attention is being given today to the rationalization of collecting policies and programs, to cooperative acquisitions arrangements, to specialization, to regional and national coverage, to the central storage of reserve materials, and to the re-distribution of books among libraries. But we have hardly made a beginning with this large and important problem, and the techniques that have been used to make these beginnings seem clumsy, expensive, and fragmentary.

It therefore seems appropriate that an issue of *Library Trends* should be devoted to cooperation, even though there is already an abundant literature on the theme, a literature which unhappily consists mainly of (a) pious generalizations, (b) descriptions of projects and devices, or (c) brave hopes and grand plans for the future.

This issue does not attempt to cover the whole field of cooperation; its emphasis is placed on the cooperative approach to building and increasing library resources. For this reason, such important cooperative ventures as regional motion-picture film circuits and cooperative cataloging efforts are excluded as not being directed toward resource

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building. An emphasis is also placed on research material rather than more popular reading; therefore, more attention is given to the efforts of university and research libraries than to those of public libraries.

In substance, this issue tries to do three things. First, it tries to trace some of the roots of library cooperation in the soil of library needs and to describe the important forms that cooperation has taken among libraries of different types in the United States and abroad. In the second place, it attempts to present a rounded picture of the present state of this varied aspect of library economy at the particular point in history at which we now stand. In these two respects, the present issue follows the usual pattern of earlier numbers of this periodical. In the third place, however, it departs somewhat from the usual format of *Library Trends*, in that it attempts to find an answer to an extremely important aspect of present day library development. The question is this: What is the reason why librarians have made relatively little progress with inter-institutional library cooperation in the face of the fact that during the last fifty years, library cooperation has been one of the most talked about and written about subjects of our profession? To the writer, the problem is a critical one. The need for a great deal more cooperation is the compelling need of the future. Yet we seem not to have discovered the technique by which significant progress can be made to meet this need through serious, meaningful, and wide-spread cooperation.

Because cooperation, by definition, reaches out from the individual institution and touches other institutions near and far, it has been difficult to compartmentalize the subject, and overlapping among the several articles in this issue was inevitable. Furthermore, the reader will find a certain lack of balance. This is easily explained. The issue editor considered that it was important to give each author considerable freedom to develop his own ideas. Each author, being an authority in the field, has been encouraged to develop his own essay within the general framework. For example, J. S. Richards, who writes about public library aspects, has elected to emphasize the effect on public library cooperation of the Library Services Act rather than to catalog projects in his field, a task performed with excellence by a recent issue of the *PLD Reporter*.

In his keynote chapter, K. D. Metcalf has discussed the broad aspects of the problem: the need, the reasons for reluctance, the difficulties, the obstacles, the emotional factors, and the barriers due to tradition and habit. He considers the legal and psychological problems,

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and both the actual and imagined deterrents to inter-institutional cooperation.

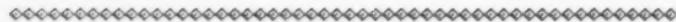
W. H. Carlson discusses the machinery that has been erected for mobilizing existing resources, describes the purposes and operations of interlibrary loan, union catalogs, union lists, and the other devices used for locating materials now in libraries and making them more accessible to readers everywhere. In contrast, E. B. Stanford describes the more recent efforts to increase and enrich existing resources by bringing new materials into our libraries through collective action. His article takes up the need, the aims, and the areas of success and failure, basing his remarks on the premise that there is an impelling necessity for large-scale joint acquisitions to meet the needs of research in our society.

Eileen Thorton describes the problem as it relates to the college library, giving closer scrutiny to the forms of cooperation which are appropriate to the needs of non-research institutions. Richards' chapter on the public library is short, because it has seemed unnecessary to duplicate the information that has been assembled in the *PLD Reporter*, no. 5.

R. T. Grazier has examined cooperation for resource-building among libraries of different types located in close proximity, and H. H. Henkle has related the problem to special libraries.

Looking abroad, there is a chapter on cooperation in the British Isles, by J. C. Harrison, and a survey of cooperation on the Continent, by Rudolf Juchhoff. The issue concludes with a statement by Donald Coney on the potentialities of the future.

The demands of modern society require increased inter-institutional library cooperation in the future, and it is hoped that this issue may offer a few guide-posts in that uncertain new world. The basic will to cooperate is essential, but besides that there must be an understanding of the realities of cooperation, a facing up to the difficulties and the pitfalls, an honest recognition that the successful sharing of library resources depends upon the appropriateness of the specific items to be shared, and a real knowledge that the benefits of cooperation are not had without the initial investment of money. Our ability to provide the research materials needed in the future appears to be proportionate to our familiarity with the characteristics of the cooperation mechanism. We seem slow to learn that our task is to create access to, rather than simply ownership of, an increased variety of resources for research purposes.



General Problems

KEYES D. METCALF

GENERAL PROBLEMS in mobilizing and developing library resources through cooperation is a topic broad enough to cover many aspects of librarianship and its philosophy if, indeed, it has a philosophy. At least it can hardly be denied that librarianship has its problems and that cooperation is a basic one.

The need for cooperation will be emphasized at the outset because the very slow pace at which cooperation has developed can be attributed to failure to recognize its necessity and, back of that, failure to understand the history that underlies this necessity. Comments on the need for cooperation will be followed by a discussion of some of the basic reasons for the reluctance of librarians and their institutions to support wholeheartedly the cooperative enterprises that will have to be developed if library resources are to be built up nationally as some of us think they can and should be. The financial problems of cooperation will be considered, including the possibility that foundations may be interested in this field, and the article will conclude with an attempt to outline the national requirements in library resources toward which cooperative efforts ought to build. Comments will be general for the most part in order to avoid needless overlapping of subsequent chapters, which deal with more specific problems and forms of cooperation.

Why do libraries need to cooperate? How did this need arise?

A seriously oversimplified answer might be simply that they are now living in the latter half of the twentieth century, not in the early years of that century or in the middle of the preceding one. It was barely more than a century ago that Harvard's library, already more than two hundred years old, and then the largest library in the United States, had only 100,000 volumes. For more than thirty years now it has been adding a greater number of volumes than this to its collection every year, and so have the Library of Congress and the New

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York Public Library. A hundred years may not seem very long to one who has been in library work for more than half that time, but the world of libraries has been enormously changed during that century.

Even so, the need for cooperation was beginning to be recognized a hundred years ago, and there were voices crying in the wilderness about library problems that, as we are finally coming to realize, can best be solved by cooperation.

One of the first of these voices, if not the first, belonged to Joseph Greene Cogswell, a member of the first group of American scholars who went abroad during the second decade of the nineteenth century to take advantage of the graduate education that was then available in Germany, particularly at the University of Göttingen. There Cogswell discovered what a great research library could mean to a scholar in the pursuit of knowledge and the effort to advance its frontiers. He came back to his homeland intent on seeing to it that eventually a student in the United States could have the advantages then at the disposal of his German colleagues. After serving for two years as librarian at Harvard, he resigned when he reluctantly concluded that President Kirkland, while he seemed to be interested in better service for undergraduates, gave no evidence of understanding the desirability of creating a great research library.

Cogswell did not forget his dream. Through Samuel Ward, a banker, he became acquainted with one of the financial geniuses of his time, John Jacob Astor. He was taken into Astor's household and, when Astor's will was probated in 1848, it was found that a very large sum of money, by the standards of those days, had been left to found a reference library for the people of New York City. Cogswell was given the opportunity to take charge of this enterprise, and he was so successful that the Astor Library—now an integral part of the New York Public Library—was soon far ahead of all the country's older libraries, whether college or university, proprietary or tax-supported. It was indeed the first great reference and research collection to be assembled on this continent.

The Astor Library made available to scholars first-rate library resources in most fields of knowledge. It made a great direct contribution to American scholarship, but its example was more important still, for it demonstrated how useful and desirable such collections were. It was inevitable that the example should be followed before long.

A second voice belonged to John Langdon Sibley of the Harvard Library, who has gone down in history as the man who boasted that all the books belonging to his library were on the shelves except two, that he knew who had these, and that he was on his way to retrieve them. In doing this he was simply preparing for the annual inspection of the library that was required by the rules. If he approved of the rules established by his superiors he may have been partially responsible for policies that seem extremely old fashioned today. In any case, he was also responsible for something that was a striking innovation in his time—he ransacked the attics of the Boston area for printed materials of a kind that had not hitherto interested librarians, and he gathered these together in the Harvard College Library.

The new materials were more ephemeral in character than those that Cogswell had collected, but were to prove highly useful as sources for historical research. As time went on, the collecting of this pioneer was copied by other librarians. Even so, the pace did not approach the speeds to which we are accustomed until Archibald Cary Coolidge took over at Harvard early in the present century and, using his own funds generously to supplement those that he was able to persuade his friends and the University to contribute, began to acquire library materials on a scale of which Sibley and Cogswell may never have dreamed.

Others were soon eager to follow. Institutions giving advanced degrees made unprecedented sums of money available for purchase of research materials, yet the appetite for such materials appeared to have become completely insatiable; faculties and graduate students demanded more and more. It should have become clear at this point that something would have to be done; to at least a few librarians interlibrary cooperation seemed the most promising way out because they believed that it could help by reducing duplication in both acquisition and cataloging.

Long before this, however, there had been still a third voice crying in the wilderness. At the time when Cogswell and Sibley were making history in the field of acquisitions, Charles Coffin Jewett was attempting to introduce revolutionary innovations in cataloging. Toward the middle of the nineteenth century when he became librarian of the newly established Smithsonian Institution, he hoped that it would become the national library, and this was not an implausible

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idea because the Library of Congress had not yet shown any signs of developing along these lines.

Regarding himself, therefore, as the natural leader in American librarianship, Jewett did his best to bring into being a national library association; he believed that his profession would benefit greatly if he and his colleagues could begin to meet and work together and talk over their mutual problems. These, of course, are all steps that must precede cooperation. He realized that a major problem was to devise a satisfactory plan for bibliographical control of library collections that would not bankrupt libraries or reduce their funds for acquisition and public services so drastically that they would be crippled. Card catalogs were in their earliest infancy; the book-form catalog was still in vogue, and Jewett believed that its cost of preparation and printing could be reduced if each book could be described once and for all, with the description recorded in such a form that it could be made available easily, quickly, and inexpensively to each library that acquired the book. His idea was a good one, though he probably did not realize how difficult it might be to persuade one cataloger to accept the work of another. But he did not get far enough with his plan to discover whether or not it could survive the difficulties that plague cooperative projects generally; he ran head-on into mechanical trouble, the warping of the stereotype plates on which the record was to be kept.

The important thing is that Jewett was interested in cooperation and that he did something to make American librarians aware of the need for it, though the growth of this awareness was a very slow process. Librarians were eager to build up their collections along the lines indicated by Cogswell and Sibley and, later, Coolidge; as the new century began they were stimulated by demands from faculty members and a growing horde of candidates for the doctorate. It has been said with considerable justification that the first qualification for a librarian is interest in collecting. Rivalry, moreover, has always characterized the relationship of institutions of higher learning; this rivalry has been stimulated by competition in sports, particularly football, but has by no means been confined to sports. The atmosphere has not favored cooperation.

In spite of this, cooperation has had a prominent place in library thought during the past fifty years and has been gathering momentum. The difficulty of raising funds sufficient to meet growing library

budgets has made this inevitable. The four major items of library costs are housing, acquisition, cataloging, and service; the first three of these, it has appeared, might be materially reduced by cooperative effort.

If growing cooperation can be characterized as inevitable, it may seem surprising that it has not developed much more rapidly. An examination of major factors that have delayed progress seems to be desirable.

Lack of realization of what had happened is one such factor. The great majority of librarians are so wrapped up in the details of their work and so interested in them that they have not considered what has been happening as the libraries have grown older and larger. They have tended to feel that finances were not their responsibility, but that libraries are obviously essential to our civilization and that adequate support is bound to be provided. This attitude has not been restricted to the lower ranks; head librarians have been inclined to say that they were building the kind of libraries their faculties wanted and that all their efforts must be devoted to this task, leaving finances for presidents and boards of trustees to handle.

There has also been a lag in realization because the problem of library growth seriously affected only the very large libraries, and these, until very recent times, could be counted on the fingers of one hand. It was not until the 1920's that more than four American libraries, the Library of Congress, Harvard, Yale, and the New York Public Library had more than one million volumes. Within a generation the number of libraries in this size-group has increased sixfold; the number will double within the next ten years.

It has been a difficult period during which to find time for sitting and thinking about the future. First there was a depression, then World War II, and then almost unprecedented prosperity. During the next fifteen years, it may be added, the great influx of new students will help to hold down the per-student cost of operating libraries, and it will be possible to argue for increasing library appropriations on the ground that an increasing number of students must be served. In fact, however, costs in a great research library depend to a very limited extent upon the number of persons served; the size of the collection, the cost of additions to it, and provision of bibliographic control are the chief items. More reading-room space is needed when student-bodies grow, but it is easy to demonstrate the need for this and hence, usually, easy to obtain it.

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Realization of the problems entailed in library growth may have lagged also because so many other things have been growing rapidly that it has not seemed particularly remarkable. Indeed, the strongest of all arguments against cooperation is that it is not really necessary—a nation that can spend \$100,000,000 for a short-lived airplane carrier and billions for atomic research can certainly afford what is needed to build up its libraries. It can be argued that proper development of libraries would save us more than it would cost by enabling researchers to avoid the duplication of work that has already been done but is not known because library service has not been adequately supported. If this is so, why need libraries be forced to undertake something as inconvenient as interlibrary cooperation? This is an argument that may have been insufficiently considered in professional literature; yet, if additional funds were made available to our educational institutions, is it entirely clear that they ought to be spent for the tools of research rather than for higher salaries and for research itself? The author will not attempt to settle this argument, but rather will continue his effort to explain what has happened as a means of illuminating the problem.

Tradition and habit have been powerful factors in delaying cooperative advances. The chief duty of the librarian is to make his library grow, and to make it grow as rapidly as possible—this has been an almost universal assumption for a long while, and there is much to be said for it. Most of those of us who have had chief responsibility for a large library have believed—rightly so, in this author's opinion—that the acquisition program is the one thing that must never be forgotten, and that a librarian, in the long run, will be remembered for what he has accomplished during his term of office toward building up the collections. Cogswell, Sibley, and Coolidge will go down in history primarily as collection-builders. Harry Lydenberg, certainly one of the greatest and most versatile of librarians, did superb work in many lines, yet he will be remembered most of all as the man who, more than anyone else, was responsible for building up over a long period a collection at the New York Public Library that was more comprehensive and better selected than any other the country has known. Most of our greatest libraries are monuments to the collecting genius of individuals who were determined to build them up even though limited funds may have made it necessary to leave them poorly housed, poorly serviced, and poorly cataloged. At least they

acquired the material when it was available and preserved it for posterity.

Emotional and psychological factors may have done even more than tradition and habit to block cooperation. The men and women who reach the higher administrative positions are, for the most part, those who have more than their share of natural independence and self-reliance. They are not the sort of people who have an inborn desire to rely on others. In other words, they are not cooperative by instinct.

Moreover, the institutions for whom they work and the institutional administrators to whom they are responsible, notably deans and presidents, are also for the most part endowed with the competitive spirit. The deans and presidents regard similar institutions as rivals with whom they have competed for faculty members and for funds; it is well to remember that, whether he likes it or not, fund-raising is likely to be the president's chief job. The institutions compete for students, and are fierce rivals on the athletic field. It is not surprising that their libraries should also indulge in competition.

One unfortunate factor in interlibrary rivalry is that it is commonly on a numerical basis. This may be absurd; but measurement of library quality is a very difficult matter, while it is easy to compare the number of volumes on the shelves. Some of the volumes may be worthless and some may be almost impossible to locate through the catalog, but all can be counted. It is easy also to boast of rarities and special collections, regardless of whether or not they are used. Manuscript collections are impressive, even if the library does not know how to care for them. The universities, on their part, may be duplicating professorships in fields where there are not enough students to go around; some institutions have boasted that they have more departments than any other in the state or the region. Any competitive absurdities of which libraries may be guilty can be matched in other parts of the institution; enough has been said, perhaps, to indicate why the general atmosphere has not encouraged interlibrary cooperation.

In addition to the non-rational factors that have been considered, obstacles to cooperation include the difficulties of overcoming objections from those whom the library serves. A research scholar wants his book when he wants it. He may be old enough to have had to wait for years for an opportunity to go abroad to obtain his research material because American library resources were insufficient to meet

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his needs; but now, with a growing collection in his own institution, he may be convinced that he cannot do his work unless the books can be placed on his desk within ten minutes after he calls for them. Worse still, he is likely to be convinced that, if his library does not own a book he wants, this failure is to be blamed on the fact that his foolish librarian has embarked on some strange and inexcusable co-operative scheme, either because he was lazy or because he took a malicious pleasure in making research difficult for scholars on the faculty.

"Why cooperate?" he may ask. "Why not stand on our own feet instead of continuing to depend for some materials on another library?" One answer, of course, is that it is a matter of interdependence—if each library has some material that is not elsewhere, total resources can be vastly increased. Moreover, if the professor will devote even a little of his ingenuity to planning ahead, he may often be able to request books that are in other libraries a few days before he needs them and thus avoid delays.

The psychological factors, particularly rivalry and impatience, are important, and there are few individuals in either the teaching or administrative ranks of institutions of higher learning who have not been affected by them. They are characteristic of professors as well as deans and presidents, of acquisition and reference librarians as well as directors.

There always appear to be good excuses for the negative attitude toward cooperation. Pressure by others is one, for it is always easy to blame others. More important is an unwillingness to be completely convinced that cooperation is really as necessary as a few vociferous librarians have been asserting. Our presidents, we like to believe, are really good at raising money from private donors or from legislatures. Why should the library budget be severely curtailed when there are professors who have few students and when buildings are being constructed to house things in which we have not the slightest interest? If we try hard enough, we should be able to get what we want. Anyhow, our rival, a hundred miles away, is getting new money and we must not fall behind.

At this point it may be worth-while to give further attention to the question of need for cooperation. The growth of libraries has been considered; it has been enormous during the past three generations, but so has the growth of everything else about our institutions. Student-bodies are ten times what they were a few years ago. Faculty

salaries have risen. Building plants, endowments, and annual budgets have grown rapidly. Are libraries getting more than their share? The library's percentage of the total budget has not been going up. Moreover, if the faculty were assembled and, after being assured that their own salaries would not be affected by their answers, asked to express an opinion, would they not agree that the library ought to get more than it does? Perhaps it should.

If we decide that the library deserves more than it is getting, we might also conclude that cooperation, while theoretically admirable, is not really necessary—not, in any case, immediately. Might it not be better to wait at least another ten years, meanwhile devoting ourselves to getting for our libraries what we ought to have in order to carry on our basic work?

If we can demonstrate that the library is not getting its proper share of the institutional budget, let us fight to get it. Even then, however, cooperation may prove useful, for reasons that will be suggested later. But libraries should get their share, which ought to be determined when all the facts are known. What kind of a college or university is wanted by the trustees, the administrative officers, the faculty, and, for that matter, the students? If a better library is one of the features they want, and if the present one is making available funds go as far as they can, then a larger proportion of the total institutional budget ought to go into the library.

Here it seems necessary to mention some of the basic facts of library life that are too often overlooked. Libraries tend to grow at a more rapid rate than other parts of the institutions to which they are attached. This is because they add books and rarely subtract any—a practice that is not hard to defend and that could hardly be abandoned in any case without precipitating a revolt by the faculty. Students and professors come, but they eventually leave through one door or another; the books stay. In the long run, therefore, the books increase in numbers more rapidly than the students or professors. As already noted, this tendency will not be evident during the years immediately ahead, because an avalanche of students is about to hit us. But, in the long run, libraries will grow more rapidly than other parts of the institution, and this would probably continue to be true even if librarians could ever be persuaded that they had finally caught up with the backlog of materials that ought to be have been acquired years ago but were not obtained for one reason or another. To be sure, many a librarian has declared that, once he had one million volumes—or two

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million, or some other number large enough to lie safely beyond his own term of office—he would be satisfied and would be willing thereafter to subtract a volume, for discard or consignment to storage, each time one is added.

A second fact of life is that, whether or not they ought to, unit costs tend to go up as libraries grow larger. In spite of their best efforts, librarians have not found it possible to apply mass-production techniques to an extent sufficient to compensate for the costs entailed by size. These include the increasing time required, as we grow larger, to make sure that the library does not already have a book recommended for acquisition, the more expensive cataloging required to distinguish the new acquisition from a million other volumes instead of one hundred thousand others, the extra distance that must be covered when getting it from the shelves when it is wanted and returning it afterward, and even the cost of teaching faculty and students how to use a very large and hence, inevitably, complex library.

Costs go up as size increases; moreover, as a library grows and gives better service, the demands upon it increase. The money spent for better service and better physical accommodations creates demands for still further expenditures. There seems to be no end to this process, and hence no end to the resources that ought to be at the library's disposal. More will always be wanted, but this is no argument against using cooperation to make what we have go as far as possible.

A third fact of life is that, as library collections grow larger, they are bound to include a constantly increasing proportion of infrequently used books. A business executive is likely to conclude that a law of diminishing returns is involved here, and that there is some point at which it will be more advantageous to spend money for purposes other than storage of additional books. They are nice to have, but it might be better for all concerned to have fewer books at hand and more books readily available elsewhere. The more books elsewhere can be provided only by means of cooperation.

The legal obstacles to cooperation of this kind have been emphasized in some quarters. Are these unsurmountable, or are they for the most part excuses for procrastination—obstacles imagined by those who want to find that cooperation is impracticable?

There are real problems. They are complicated, as legal matters are likely to be. Some libraries operate under charters that preclude some types of cooperation, and there may be instances of tax-supported

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institutions that cannot use funds derived from taxes for any enterprise located outside the state or even the city to which they belong. This is not the place for a legal discussion of such problems, even if the writer were qualified to undertake one, but three points may be worth making:

First, the members of the Midwest Inter-Library Center come from at least eight different states, and most of them are tax-supported, yet it appears that each member has been legally able to contribute to the Center's support.

Second, it should be remembered that, if some types of interlibrary cooperation are now illegal for some libraries, laws have been changed in the past and changes are possible in the future if the demand for them is strong enough.

Third, if legal obstacles prevent cooperation that seems to be desirable and is wanted by libraries, then funds from one of the foundations should be solicited to finance a study of these obstacles. It should be possible to make a convincing case for such a grant.

Financial problems are doubtless going to be harder to handle than legal ones. If it is difficult for the library to obtain adequate support from its own institution, it may well be more difficult yet to obtain appropriations to support an enterprise that is not directly under the control of those who make the appropriations. Trustees are naturally interested in how the funds that they control are used, and they cannot directly control the expenditures of a cooperative organization in which others have a share of the management. This will always be a problem, and it follows that cooperation must always, and repeatedly, be ready to demonstrate its utility and economy.

On the other hand, if convincing proof of the monetary advantages of cooperation can be provided, it ought to be possible to tap new sources of income. Foundations are likely to take an interest in projects that attempt to solve new problems or to investigate new methods for solving old problems. Anything that promises to make one dollar do the work of two is appealing. Interlibrary cooperation ought to attract the foundations' "venture capital."

There will have to be fairly general agreement on the long-term objectives of cooperation if foundation funds are to be obtained for it on more than a small scale and if libraries are to give it the backing that will be essential to its success. Small libraries as well as large will be involved, for projects such as the Hampshire Inter-Library Center should not be overlooked, and most of the participants in the

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various bibliographical centers are relatively small. Nothing definitive in the way of formulating objectives can be attempted in this article, but it seems desirable to suggest at least a few of the national requirements in library resources that deserve a place among the objectives of interlibrary cooperation. Four points may be suggested.

First, copies of all worth-while information that has been printed ought to be readily available to research scholars, to industry, and, indeed, to any individual who can use it. The easiest way to do this, so far as we know, is to place at least one copy of each book that contains such information in a library that is willing to make it available when needed by interlibrary loan or photographic reproduction. In many cases, if not most, the demand will warrant acquisition and recording of the book by more than a single American library.

Second, even if a sufficient number of copies of each book are in the country, research needs will not be met unless satisfactory bibliographical control is achieved; this includes making the record readily available to those who need it.

Third, the prevention of needless duplication of infrequently used books will reduce costs of acquisition in at least two ways—fewer copies of each title will be purchased, and the price of those that are purchased will not be forced up by competition between buyers. Too often, in the past, libraries have bid against one another for volumes that were destined to stand on the shelves unused for decades at a time.

Finally, the underlying objective and *raison d'être* of cooperation is to increase the nation's total library resources without correspondingly increasing library expenditures. The country is not spending too much on its libraries, and cooperative achievements will by no means justify a reduction in such expenditures. Rather, cooperation will enable libraries to give more satisfactory service, whatever their financial resources, than would be possible without it.



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WHAT BOOKS, PERIODICAL ARTICLES, films, maps, and related library materials are where now? And how and at what points can they be delivered for use? The answers to these questions are the basic concern of this chapter. They are simple questions but the answers no longer come as simply as they once did. This is so because the cataloging, indexing, and abstracting processes, which we have had to develop to know what is where have necessarily become increasingly elaborate, detailed, and complicated. This elaboration and this detail, and the resulting complexities, are part and parcel of the problems of mobilizing the total literature of the world and delivering it for use as efficiently and economically as may be. While the machinery by which we do this has grown and is growing cumbersome and unwieldy this does not arise from any inherent complexities in the bibliographical processes and procedures as such, but rather from the sheer mass of materials to be acquired, organized, and placed in readiness to be quickly and smartly marched front and center, on call, to whatever point from which the demand may come.

As applied to limited collections the cataloging, classifying and location processes, which we now have, are highly satisfactory. It is an easy and relatively simple matter to catalog a hundred books or to index and abstract a hundred periodical articles. It is easy too, but not quite so easy, to apply the same processes to a thousand items. It is not too complicated to catalog or index ten thousand items or even a hundred thousand and to establish the machinery for use. But as the numbers increase, as they so inexorably and rapidly have, into the multi-millioned volumes of our present civilization the right answers have become increasingly difficult, complex, and costly. All this is clearly demonstrated in our libraries, individually and collectively, and in the evolution, down through the ages, of the bibliographical processes.

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The first library catalog unquestionably could be, and was, a simple matter. It came into being only when the books had become numerous enough so that they could no longer be easily spanned and found by memory. Its compiler needed to devise only a simple listing and some scheme of organization, not even necessarily logical or efficient. No need in these first catalogs to worry about standardization, or uniformity, or classed versus author catalogs, or detailed classification schemes, or atrophied subject headings, or indexes and abstracts of literature published serially. But surely and inevitably, as books became more numerous and more varied in form, these problems and complications, insistent and less and less easily solved, presented themselves. To ignore them was only to compound the problems and increase the difficulties of some future day. These are obvious and elementary facts. They deserve emphasis, nevertheless in a consideration of the present-day complexities of mobilizing the writings of the world because it gives us perspective, and a better understanding if we realize that we deal with a problem grown and growing complicated chiefly by numbers.

These things are, in part at least, relative. No doubt the earliest keepers of books felt that they were faced with a pretty formidable task. Even the writer of *Ecclesiastes*, in a time when the situation, from our standpoint must have been very simple, was troubled by the making of many books and found the studying of them a weariness of the flesh. The librarians of the Ptolomies, who probably had a considerable cataloging and organizing problem and the medieval monks in charge of the book presses may also have felt, no less than we do now, that they presided over a rich store and that keeping it well ordered and safely preserved was a complicated and increasingly difficult task.

In the eighteenth century the product of the presses was a mere rivulet compared with the present flood-tide, but it was a pretty mighty river compared with what had gone before. So much so that Voltaire, sensing the intellectual if not the organizational aspects of the rapid increase of publication felt moved to complain, "The multitude of books is making us ignorant." As indeed it was in the sense that the time was fast disappearing when any one mind could encompass all the significant writings. Somewhat over a century later Washington Irving, another fecund contributor to the literary heritage, standing in awe of libraries of three and four thousand volumes, which to us seem modest indeed, expressed concern as follows:

But the invention of paper and press have put an end to all . . . restraints. They have made every one a writer, and enabled every mind to pour itself into print, and diffuse itself over the whole intellectual world. The consequences are alarming. The stream of literature has swollen into a torrent—augmented into a river—expanded into a sea. . . . Unless some unforeseen mortality should break out among the progeny of the Muse, now that she has become so prolific, I tremble for posterity. . . . let criticism do what it may, writers will write, printers will print, and the world will inevitably be overstocked with good books. It will soon be the employment of a lifetime merely to learn their names. Many a man of passable information at the present day reads scarcely anything but reviews, and before long a man of erudition will be little better than a mere walking catalogue.¹

No doubt the bibliographers and librarians of Irving's time read the above words with understanding and sympathy, quite as much as those of us in the present era can appreciate a grain of reality in Garrett Hardin's fantasy, "The Last Canute." This imaginative piece, appearing in the *Scientific Monthly* of September 1946, makes a news release in the fictitious *Martian Morning Revelation* go in part like this: "With the discovery of these plates [near Worldly New York] we have, for the first time, found evidence that at least a few of the Worldlings tried to fend off their doom. . . . What a strange quirk of Fate that these people, who titillated themselves with visions of destruction by atomic power—which to these primitive folk seemed a wondrous thing—should instead have perished peacefully, inexorably 'suffocated,' as one of their prophets put it, 'by their own intellectual excreta.'"²

It is not unthinkable that the librarians of future generations may find this fantasy too a bit quaint and a strange reaction to a situation which, from their viewpoint, should have been quite easily manageable.

Whether progress in bibliographical controls in the future will be such that the problems we face here and now in mobilizing our massive literature will seem relatively simple to those who come after us only the future will tell. One thing, however, is certain and that is that the future will, in matters bibliographical, no less than in other areas, be determined by the present. And in the present within which we live keeping our literature organized, findable, and usable, is a problem which has, for the past century particularly, been quantitatively increasing exponentially and, to a lesser extent in complexity

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and in cost. This has been so, we again emphasize, not because the control processes are cumbersome and poorly conceived, although no one would claim perfection, but rather because the materials to be controlled increase and spawn and cross fertilize and multiply at such a tremendous rate.

We are concerned here chiefly with organizational mastery of our literature, and this is problem enough. The intellectual aspects of mastering the literature and knowing and understanding what is in it, however, the danger that our writings, as Voltaire feared may make us ignorant, or that the learned man, as Washington Irving predicted, will be a mere walking catalog, or that we may come to the total suffocation of "The Last Canute," this is really the more serious part of the problem and it belongs not to the librarians alone but to all who think, study, read, write, and publish. It is a problem fundamental and basic to total civilization.

In our efforts to keep abreast of the rising flood and keep things manageable we of this later era have, consciously or unconsciously, followed the ancient principles deriving from the very nature of the problem. Librarians, if they are to be content and happy in their work must be people who instinctively are of intellectual bent and who like to help others. One of the first, at least in the period of the printed book, to systematically think of these things and write about them was Gabriel Naudé. In his book, *Avis Pour Dresser une Bibliotheque* first published in 1627, he set down a fourth principle, which, in part, goes like this: ". . . that by this means (a catalogue) one may sometimes serve and please a friend, when one cannot provide him the book he requires, by directing him to the place where he may find a copy, as may easily be done with the assistance of these catalogues."³ On this principle all modern librarianship is based. Systematic organization through cataloging, friendly service, and directing the user to the book he may want, wherever it is, these all embodied in the Naudé principle, are the base root of our present day librarianship. They have determined the mobilization processes which we here discuss and reflect on.

Librarianship, on the present pattern, at least in America, began to evolve just about one hundred years ago. In 1847 the first list of indexed periodical articles, which was to grow into Poole's "great" cooperative index, was published.⁴ By 1850 Charles Coffin Jewett's plan for a general printed catalog of American libraries was advanced.⁵ Here was an idea which has been tenaciously pursued for years on

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end, and which is still pursued, although not in the completeness originally envisioned by Jewett. In 1876, with the founding of the American Library Association, cataloging procedures began to standardize and crystallize along lines still largely adhered to. By 1901, when the Library of Congress took over the central printing of library catalog cards from Library Bureau, the pattern and machinery which now controls and determines our mobilization processes was pretty well set.

While there has been much latter day criticism of cataloging, as we practice it, and some administrators have thrown off airy criticisms about nineteenth century methods, it is doubtful, could we by a magic wand wave it all away, that we could come up with anything better. It is highly probable that we would come right back, in spite of the promises of the machine, to catalogs on cards. It is likely that these cards would be just about three by five inches in size and it is certain that there would be cards for each book under author, and under title and subjects, including all the machinery of cross references. This would be so because the whole card mechanism of control and mobilizing has worked, and worked rather well, even when applied to quantities of material which probably even the most prescient of the devisers ever foresaw.

The approximate twenty year span centering on the last century mark might well be called a golden age because in these years the leading librarians pretty well foresaw the shape of things to come and put forth the basic suggestions by which our mobilization still proceeds. Central cataloging, including printed cards, cooperative indexing of periodicals, union catalogs showing the location of books and journals, reservoir or deposit libraries, cooperative buying of books, including subject specialization, bibliographic centers, regional libraries, these were all foreseen, advocated, promoted, and discussed during these fruitful years.

In 1899 E. C. Richardson of Princeton and later of the Library of Congress, who will certainly continue to hold an important place in the history of American librarianship, declared in one of his earliest publications, that some method whereby the location of books in various libraries could be found was needed. He emphasized also the need of cooperation in buying in order that libraries would supplement, not duplicate each other, and in order too that as great a number of books as possible not already somewhere in this country

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would be acquired.⁶ Richardson gave a lifetime of effort and advocacy to this concept, so basic in the mobilizing of the literature. His idea, nurtured and promoted by those who came after him, slowly took firm root. One aspect of it is found in our various union catalogs and other locating devices and another in what we now know as the Farmington Plan.

In 1908 two ideas which are now basic components of our mobilization procedures were advanced. C. H. Gould, librarian of McGill University proposed, in that year, the establishment of regional libraries whose spheres of operation would embrace the entire continent, each to be the center of a great region, helping the libraries of its own district, but maintaining a definite cooperative relationship to all other regional libraries. He thought of these libraries as really international in scope and character.⁷ Now, fifty years later we have at least a beginning of such libraries in the New England Depository Library and the Midwest Inter-Library Center.

W. C. Lane of Harvard, also in 1908, brought forward the plan, earlier conceived in part by President Eliot of Harvard, of not only cooperation among libraries for central storage but also the need for devising methods whereby it could be known where individual copies of books are located. He suggested setting up a College Library and Lending Bureau to gather bibliographies, catalogs, and other kinds of data on where books are located. He also suggested production of union lists on a variety of subjects and the building up, by the Bureau, of a collection of books of its own, chiefly working tools and expensive individual sets.⁸ Agencies such as this we now have in our numerous bibliographic centers.

The authors of these proposals clearly realized that they were not spot solutions and that it would take many years to see them in effective operation. Thus Gould, who in 1908 made cooperation the theme of his presidency of the A.L.A. said, in his presidential address, "The twentieth century has the task of evolving method and order *among* rather than within libraries."⁹ Similarly R. R. Bowker, speaking on coordination at the 1909 Conference said, "It is an enormous subject, this; it is really the subject of the century, . . ."¹⁰

It has indeed taken years to bring these proposals into being, and then only imperfectly. With the century half spent they are still only very spottily and haphazardly realized. Regional libraries, in the sense of gathering books together, in their physical presence, have been

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achieved, in an important sense, only in the two centers noted above and of these only the Midwest Inter-Library Center is truly a regional library.

In the important area of achieving coordination among libraries and in the location of books much greater progress has been made. Now we have five major union catalogs and bibliographical centers in full-blown and successful operation. These centers, all effective mobilizing agencies, are the Union Library Catalogue of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area, the Pacific Northwest Bibliographical Center in Seattle, the Union Catalog at Western Reserve University Library in Cleveland, the Bibliographical Center for Research of Denver and last and most important of all, the Union Catalog Division of the Library of Congress. In 1950 the relatively modest sum of \$118,386 was being spent on operating all these Centers. They then contained about nineteen million cards, more than ten million of them in the Library of Congress National Union Catalogue.¹¹ Supplementing these centers are a whole host of lesser union catalogs, all important in regional mobilization. Among these are the Union Catalog of the Nashville Libraries, the North Carolina Union Catalog, the Atlanta-Athens Union Catalog, the Union Catalog of Southwestern Michigan, the Union Catalog of the Oregon State System of Higher Education and similar cooperative enterprises.

Into these union catalogs, major as well as minor, has gone a great deal of planning and hard work. Space allocations for them have been made in crowded host library buildings and substantial monies have been expended, a considerable part of them from Foundation grants. It is rather significant that while all these union catalogs are being maintained at considerable expense and are effective in their various areas that no important new union catalogs have been founded in recent years. All regions and communities which have these catalogs certainly profit by them but possibly the gains do not now seem significant enough to justify both the very considerable cost of creation plus the continuing annual cost of maintenance.

An outstanding event, possibly one of the important milestones of our century, in the development of the union catalogs, is the realization of the long sought goal of printing the great *National Union Catalog*. This has come about through the printing in offset form, along the lines pioneered by the Library of Congress author catalog, of all cards for all 1956 and later imprints. This is an enterprise of bright promise which may produce one of the greatest location and

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mobilizing tools yet achieved. There are, as should certainly be expected, great problems in the making and printing of this catalog, one of which is the limitation on the number of locations which can be conveniently shown. Nevertheless even in its envisaged beginning form the Catalog, for which the first deliveries are expected shortly, will certainly aid greatly in disseminating information about the resources of the major libraries of America.

This Catalog, believes George Schwegmann, Jr., chief of the Library of Congress Union Catalog Division, may change some of the traditional patterns of American librarianship and make possible a more equitable national distribution of the inter-lending of books among the libraries of the country, with more books borrowed from libraries near at hand. The Catalog can also be an aid to national and regional planning and may reduce cataloging and acquisition costs.¹² To the extent that these predictions come true the need for further major or even minor regional union catalogs will certainly be reduced.

The progress of this *National Union Catalog* brings into emphasis the now familiar pattern of our twentieth century librarianship—ever increasing numbers to be struggled with. The annual cumulation of this catalog will contain 17,858 entries prepared by the Library of Congress and 7,775 by other libraries for 1956 imprints alone. For these titles the catalog will cite 71,198 locations in American and Canadian libraries. Together with imprints for previous years the catalog will fill 3,622 pages. This is a tremendous listing but the 1957 record may make it look pretty insignificant. The cumulation for only the first three months of 1957, which contains 1956 and 1957 imprints, records 11,743 Library of Congress entries and 2,848 from other libraries, totaling more than half as many as in all of the 1956 cumulation. The April 1957 issue alone contains 4,961 entries from other libraries which when added to the previous three months exceed the number of entries from other libraries for all of 1956.¹³ Here we are indeed going to have a tool, massive, as it must be, but a great mobilizer of the book resources of this continent.

Among the most effective of all the literature mobilizing tools are the various union lists of serials. What was probably the first of such lists was published in Chicago in 1901. Other union lists followed at Philadelphia in 1908, University of Illinois in 1911, New York in 1915, Rochester, 1917 and Providence, 1921. These and similar lists set the stage for and pointed the way to the great national *Union List of Serials* of 1928. This epoch making list, which without doubt is the

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most comprehensive and effective literature mobilizing tool produced to date by any nation, was conceived during World War I and promoted, in the ensuing years, by libraries, chiefly college and university, forty of which contributed \$12,000 a year, for a three year period, for its support.¹⁴ After years of work the list was, in 1928 an accomplished and bulky fact and, as a by-product, the serial files of the cooperating libraries were in better shape than they had ever before been. Much additional work and money was required to bring a second edition, bulkier, more comprehensive and better than the first, into service in 1943. This was followed by supplements through 1949. By then this way of cooperatively recording and locating serials had begun to tax the patience and budgets of libraries so the supplements ceased. Taking their place was the much less satisfactory *New Serial Titles, a Union List of Serials Commencing Publication after December 31, 1949* published by the Library of Congress. That this new union list has been something less than satisfactory is reflected in a recent grant of \$6,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation to enable the Joint Committee on the Union List of Serials to develop a new union list program.¹⁵ Should this new analysis of union list processes achieve success comparable to the great union list of 1928 mobilization progress will indeed have been made.

A clear reflection of evolving publication rates and trends and the rapidly increasing serialization of our twentieth century literature is that the 1955 cumulation of *New Serial Titles*, which includes only journals which have come into existence in the 1949-55 period, requires 667 pages, recording approximately 40,000 titles. Probably not the most knowing of the students of the bibliographical birth rate would have predicted, in 1948, that each of the next six years would bring, on an average, six thousand new journals into being, to be housed and mobilized and to demand annual financial sustenance. This tremendous increase in current publication points up the observation, made by several commentators on the current bibliothecal scene, that it is not the literature of the ages that has brought acute organizational problems to our libraries but rather the present and increasing spawning among the presses.

Here are some thought-stirring facts of the increase problem as applied to a single field—physiology. In 1810 there was only one journal being published in this field. By 1950 there were 151. It is not so much this increase in itself which gives the scientist and the librarian pause as the rate, reflected in *New Serials Titles* and also in the following

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figures, at which it has come about. In 1850 there were only three physiological journals and by 1900 twenty-two. This number had increased to fifty-one by 1920 and here the growth begins in earnest with more than thirty new physiological journals appearing in each of the three following decades and all this while journals already in the field were generously proliferating and increasing their page content. Pity the poor physiologist who would familiarize himself with all his literature. Even in 1900 it would have taken him, reading at the rate of two minutes per page for eight hours per day, ninety-one days to scan the journals. By 1940 such a scanning of the year's journals would have required two years and seventy days.¹⁶ And if the physiologist has more than enough to read, what about the doctor of medicine? He has only 12,000 journals, clinical and pre-clinical, to read, any one of which might contain information of vital import to him.

It is obviously not necessary, for every physiologist, every doctor, every engineer to read everything. Rapid and significant progress has come without such total reading. The present ideals and philosophy of librarianship, however, and of current scholarship too, require that every scientist should know and have easy access to that portion of the literature, wherever it may be, which touches his immediate interests and speciality. Our mobilization machinery for serial literature has, at its best, never achieved these ideals. Our indexing machinery for journals, while laboring heavily, is falling steadily behind in organizing the rapidly increasing serial literature. Against the rising flood there stands two types of indexes, the general indexes, first made and produced by librarians and now typified by the whole family of Wilson indexes and others, and the specialized subject indexes, such as *Biological Abstracts*, *Chemical Abstracts*, *Engineering Index*, and a host of more highly specialized abstracts and indexes originated and produced by scholars of the field.

The valiant struggles for control by these subject indexes emphasizes the losing nature, currently, of the battle. *Biological Abstracts*, for example, covers less than forty-five per cent of the literature of its field. It is estimated that it would require seven abstracting journals the size of the present *Biological Abstracts* to adequately cover all the biological journals publishing substantive research articles. A plan for, if not complete biological world coverage, then a more comprehensive coverage, would assign exclusive nuclei of journals, on a coordinated basis, to *Excerpta Medica*, *Biological Abstracts*, and

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Berichte über die gesamte Biologie. Other abstracts that now have some biological coverage, such as *Chemical Abstracts* and the *Geological Indexes* would agree to cover completely smaller quotas of partly biological journals. The specialized abstracting journals would also be fitted into the general program. All this of course would require a collaboration and coordination between all the indexing services now not even remotely approached.¹⁷

The same problems of providing chart and compass for their literature which the biologists are struggling with are present, in varying degree, in every other technical and scientific field. Solution of them, if it comes, will require cooperation on a colossal scale. Coordination and elimination of present duplication would do much but there will also need to be a wide extension of coverage to the myriad new titles, and sharp central control mechanisms, if the scholar or librarian is to be enabled to learn what is where in any real comprehensive sense. Here indeed is a stubborn and rocky field awaiting the fertilization and stimulation of Foundation dollars.

Progress, in control, if it is made, will likely come through further specialization and breaking down and segmenting of the major fields into subject areas more and more specialized. This is a trend which has developed slowly but inevitably since the first attempts of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries at subject mastery such as the *Catalogue of Scientific Papers* and the *International Catalogue of Scientific Literature* of the Royal Society of London and *Concilium Bibliographicum*, H. H. Field's almost singlehanded effort to internationally organize the literature of zoology. From the beginning these ambitious enterprises were doomed to be finally overwhelmed, partly because of organizational problems but finally and completely by the sheer mass of the materials they were required to mobilize.

Important in the organizational mastery of literature has been the preparation of individual bibliographies of varying scope and ambition, from relative brief listings to exhaustive subject, regional, period, or national lists, and from author listings only to elaborate annotated bibliographies that have sometimes been the work of a lifetime. Illustrative of the careful and detailed work that has gone into bibliographies as well as improving quality and value, through systematic co-operation, is the Hain-Copinger-Reichling series of bibliographies dealing with incunabula, to be followed by the ambitious *Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke*. This later epitome of bibliographical detail answering exactly what is where for its field, like so much exacting bibliogra-

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phical and location work, moved very slowly. Only eight volumes, covering less than one-fourth of the alphabet, could be produced in the 1925-40 period, before it was brought to an abrupt halt by World War II. Bibliographies are legion of course and to list even the most important would be to produce still another bibliography. In the present quick analysis of literature mobilization only a bow can be made in the direction of the printed catalogs of the great libraries such as the Library of Congress, the British Museum, and the Bibliothèque Nationale. These are basic bibliographical tools in daily use in the scholarly work of the world.

The disrupting intrusion of war into the affairs of bibliography and scholarship may be further noted in the fate of the very ambitious *Deutsches Gesamtkatalog* which has been described as "an indispensable work for catalogers, reference workers, and bibliographical investigation generally in the matter of German publications." This great work too, after achieving fourteen volumes in the 1931-39 period and covering only the letters A-B came to a grinding halt under the bombs and madness of the God Mars, who is little concerned with bibliographies and the affairs of scholars unless, perchance they should be making listings, as many of them have, dealing with the arts of making war. This *Gesamtkatalog* indicates locations in more than a hundred libraries. It is but one of many highly perfected mobilization tools. It is doubtful however that the scholarly world can, under the increasing weight of numbers, longer afford such luxuries of detail and perfection.

While bibliography, whether of serials or monographic writings, is the bedrock of librarianship even the sheer mass of books about books begins to weigh heavily. Thus we find two French bibliographers, as quoted by Julien Cain, complaining as follows: "Like literature itself bibliography today has become as boundless as the sea. It would be well to practise Malthusianism in this respect and to discourage certain bibliographers who, from the mechanical recordings of the works of others, derive an intellectual satisfaction which they are incapable of achieving through research of their own."¹⁸ This is the first complaint of this kind which this writer reenacts encountering. It has a rather curious "me and thee" connotation similar to that of the Quaker who thought everyone queer but himself and his wife. It could also be interpreted as pointing at practically all of us as librarians, since we have, as a class, made helping others to be creative our chief mission in life rather than being creative ourselves. The two

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functions, of course, are not mutually exclusive, but if librarians and bibliographers throw up their hands in despair over too many bibliographies or other informational devices about books then the battle surely begins to be lost.

It is the part of the librarian's and the bibliographer's dilemma that the better he does his work, the more helpful he is, the more work there is to do. From this viewpoint, certainly, the work of librarians and libraries with all the attendant mobilization problems, has been tremendously effective. Bibliographies, of course, in and of themselves are not the books crowding our libraries. This can be said in spite of the three fat volumes which constitute the tremendous second edition of Theodore Besterman's *World Bibliography of Bibliographies*.

An extremely important factor in the mobilization of the world's literature is the great and often highly specialized libraries, or collections within individual libraries, brought together by individual citizens. These men, more often than not, have not been great scholars in their collecting fields. They have, however, been activated by a passion for collecting and, for the most part, possessed of the extensive dollars required to pursue the publications of their chosen fields. It is to men of this kind that we owe such magnificent collections as the Hoover Library of War and Peace, the Folger Shakespeare Library, William Andrews Clark Memorial Library of the University of California, the Arents Tobacco Collection of the New York Public Library and numerous other libraries and collections of private origin. These private collecting activities and, in many instances, their continuing handsome endowments, have been valuable mobilization factors creating subject collections which attract the scholars of the world.

The systematic analyses of regional and national libraries and resources such as R. B. Downs' three volumes, *American Library Resources*; *Resources of New York City Libraries*; and *Resources of Southern Libraries*; and John Van Male's *Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries* are among the useful tools outlining the nature and location of the library wealth of the country. Additional guides to subject holdings and the location of special strength are the *Directory of Special Libraries* and the *American Library Directory*. These and similar less extensive analyses and guides in the periodical literature are among the latter day aids which help to delineate the national fabric of our library resources and to bring them into relief.

Other significant approaches to mobilization of library strength more from the acquisitional rather than the use standpoint are a vari-

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ety of specialization conferences and agreements. These have developed chiefly in the second quarter of our century. They include the extensive but informal national Library Specialization Conference of May 13-14, 1941, and, regionally, the Pacific Northwest Library Association Conference on Library Specialization of 1943 at which general specialization agreements were reached by the libraries of the Northwest. On a national scale the Farmington Plan is, of course, also a form, of varying effectiveness, of mobilizing and distributing library strength throughout our country.

Many efforts toward specialization among college and university libraries have lacked validity and strength because a corollary to extensive specialization among libraries of this kind must be a corresponding specialization of curricula and research interests and activities. To date no really important higher educational agreements of this kind, which would be reflected in library holdings, have been reached but such relatively recent regional cooperative agencies as the Southern Regional Education Board and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, both of which maintain permanent headquarters, have taken a notable part in reducing duplication of higher educational facilities. What they have done and are doing has already to a limited extent and will increasingly affect what library resources are where.

Supplementing national and regional agreements on development and use of resources are numerous local agreements between libraries such as the long established and effective agreement between the John Crerar, Newberry, and Public Library in Chicago, the University of North Carolina-Duke agreements, agreements in Nashville and Atlanta areas, in the Bay area of California, among the New York City libraries and in numerous other localities. These cooperative arrangements for limited areas, much more easily consummated than more extensive agreements, possibly number in the hundreds. Without question they have been of tremendous importance in the rapidly evolving and constantly changing fabric of library resources.

One library mobilization factor which was of little or no significance at the beginning of this century but which has been developing steadily and with increasing rapidity, particularly in the post World War II years, is the creation of special libraries by industry and business. The phenomenal development of these libraries, and of highly specialized collections within libraries, in recent years, is indicated by the fact that the *Special Libraries Directory* of 1935 includes only

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1,154 libraries and specialized collections as compared with 2,489 listed in the 1953 directory. These increasing and highly specialized libraries, tailored to the needs of their companies, add appreciable strength and richness and an additional element of mobilization to the library resources of the nation. A case in point, and hundreds of outstanding examples could be listed, is the library of the Corning Glass Works, which contains the great majority of the writings extant on glass.

One factor in the production of the literature our libraries must acquire and organize which the pioneers did not have to struggle with, and which they probably never even foresaw, is the unpublished report which has, since World War II assumed increasing importance in the research processes. These evolving and difficult to control publications are in the very forefront of research. While they are now chiefly produced in highly specialized projects, and to the extent that they are acquired by libraries, are chiefly found in the specialized libraries, it seems certain that there will be more and more of them, not less. They will become undoubtedly an increasingly important part of the holdings and work of the generality of research libraries, bringing with them problems both of internal controls and perhaps, to a limited extent, national mobilization.

To this point this chapter has considered chiefly the problems and mechanisms of control of our literature, the means by which we tell what we have and where it is. We come now to the prime reason for all our acquisition, organization, and housing processes, to the delivering of our books, journals or other materials for use. It is a characteristic of the true librarian that he is never so happy as when his books are being used, for only this makes his library a living thing with vitality, significance, and purpose. The desire to have books used, emphasized by Naudé and many others has, in spite of some gruesome examples to the contrary, very likely dominated librarians from the time writings were first assembled in quantity.

In medieval times the extant writings, in the earlier period chiefly unique copies, were extremely rare and of great value. Even under these conditions it was recognized that they should be shared, as is indicated by the following sentence from Gertrude B. Rawling's *The Story of Books*: "It was considered a sacred duty thus to share the benefits of books with others; but sometimes the custodians of the precious volumes, aware of the failures of memory to which book-borrowers have ever been peculiarly liable, were so averse from run-

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ning the risk of lending that the libraries were placed under anathema and could not be lent under pain of excommunication."¹⁹

In spite of sharp and necessary restrictions and even the chaining of books there was a considerable interchange of writings among the medieval monastic libraries. That books were not thought of as being completely and irrevocably cloistered in these earlier times is shown by the efforts, in the early sixteenth century, of one Nicolas Claude Fabri de Peiresc to establish interlibrary loans between the Royal Library in Paris and the Vatican and Barberini libraries in Rome.²⁰ The recognition of the tremendous value to scholarship in a reasonably free exchange of materials in these efforts and the condemnation of those who jealously guard materials has a completely modern sound. The same sentiments can be found expressed in our literature right up to the present moment.²¹

The idea of positive extension of loans outside libraries and among libraries did not blossom, under the scarcity of books, but it persisted and took firm root in our country and elsewhere as soon as the times were propitious. In 1849 in response to a questionnaire from Jewett fourteen libraries reported loans to "persons at a distance." By 1876 S. S. Green, director of the Worcester Free Public Library called upon reference libraries "to lend books to each other." A proposal that libraries enter into agreements to furnish books to each other was advanced in 1892 by Samuel Bumford of the Ridgway Library in Philadelphia. The editors of the *Library Journal*, commenting on this proposal, remarked that such interlibrary lending was not "unexampled" and cited frequent lendings of this kind between Harvard College and the Boston Athenaeum.²² By 1915 interlendings had increased to the point where the A.L.A. found it necessary to issue the first of its codes of regulations.

Now, of course, interlibrary lending has become an accepted and unquestioned part of the research process in the libraries of practically the entire world. The tacit acceptance of a liberal interlending of books by and among the libraries of our country, has in effect made the resources of our libraries a national cultural and research asset. This has been a tremendous contribution to both the rapid technological advances we have made and our great forward strides in research and scholarship. Aiding, as it has, in the publication of more and better books, this free interchange of books is but another of the many evidences of the fruit the work of librarians brings. Once

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again, because librarians do their work well and with vision, as in the free interlending of books, they help significantly in creating more books to be acquired, organized, housed, and delivered for use as needed.

A distinct contribution to carrying out lendings among libraries economically and well has been the General Interlibrary Loan Code 1952 adopted by the Association of College and Reference Libraries. This code, to which a committee of the Association devoted two years of work, in addition to revising and improving lending regulations, establishes standard forms, based on those first devised for the libraries of the greater University of California. These are now helpfully in use on a nation-wide basis. Through them and the control and location mechanisms discussed above and through the general and prevailing philosophy that books exist to be used it is now possible for the scholar and researcher to have delivered to his desk, wherever he may be, almost whatever unit or units of the world's literature for which he may have a need. The results of this liberality and wide range of access, while now taken for granted has, when we stop to analyze it, been spectacularly successful. Of this our burgeoning libraries and the growing complexities and troubles of their management is clear proof.

While it is true that literature from almost anywhere in the world can be delivered on the desk of the scholar locally, either in original or facsimile, this does not, beyond national borders, proceed too smoothly at this time. There are still formidable barriers of inadequacy and variations of the mobilizing processes, barriers of language, postal regulations, and academic mores and customs. In a world which is rapidly shrinking physically while at the same time growing even more rapidly intellectually, good progress in facilitating and simplifying library use is being made. As it must, this is coming about through ever increasing international collaboration. The need for thus working closely across boundary lines and language barriers has been clearly recognized throughout the entire modern period of librarianship.

Long before the League of Nations librarians and bibliographers, not in any great numbers it must be admitted, were collaborating and working together with their confreres in other countries. Through the League, and through the internationally minded thinking it promoted, further international collaboration took place and additional agencies for promoting such work were either founded or infused with addi-

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tional vitality. World War II, of course, brought all this to a halt but even the War was not an unmixed evil, bibliographically, because it brought the demise of the only partially accepted League of Nations and the creation of the stronger United Nations and its great educational and scientific arm, Unesco.

Under Unesco international progress in all cultural and educational matters has slowly but surely quickened. This has been particularly true in all library matters. Much of the progress in this area, pointing the way to the future, is set forth in the first and second annual reports of bibliographical services throughout the world, 1951-52 and 1952-53, prepared by L. N. Malcles and published in Unesco Handbook Number 4. These two reports, requiring 111 and 196 pages respectively, reflect increasing activity and indicate that the third and fourth reports will record even more organizations and greater achievements. Much more than just reporting of activities will, of course, be required. With more and more of the record of achievement by countries available progress in the international coordination of them will be sure to come.

Within our country, already well developed bibliographically and culturally, the work of Unesco is little apparent. On the international scene, however, results have been achieved which are fraught with significance and promise for the whole cultural development of the world and particularly for all who work at acquiring and organizing the record. Each year, reports Unesco, twenty-five million more people are learning to read and there are now about 1,300 million literate persons in the world. The number of titles published in sixty countries now exceeds 250,000 each year and the world book output has increased by twenty-five per cent during the 1945-55 decade.²³ No promise of surcease for librarian or scholar in these facts and figures. Rather is there additional cause to wonder if the control and mobilization methods of the present are equal to gargantuan bibliographical prospects of this progress.

The international organizational apparatus for cooperation in meeting and conquering the problems which this great increase has already brought, and will continue to bring, in sustained and increasing abundance, include the following: International Federation of Library Associations, International Organization for Standardization, International Council on Archives, International Association of Agricultural Librarians and Documentalists, International Association of Theological Librarians and the International Association of Medical Li-

brarians and Documentalists. These and other organizations, some quite certainly yet to be born, face a task formidable now and which, some twenty-five million new readers annually and rapidly increasing literacy throughout the world, will rapidly become more so.

Organizations like the above are concerned chiefly with physical mastery of the world's writings. Over and above this, and far more important is the matter of intellectual mastery. While the future is not within the province of this chapter speculation is a temptation. Suffice it to predict that under the weight of numbers, librarians and the cultural world generally will eventually, sharply and necessarily, break precedent with the past. Even now there is some faint questioning of the perfectionism which has dominated our bibliographical processes and increasing talk of weeding and new and more stringent standards of value to be met by the materials which are admitted to our libraries to qualify for retention there.

One of the most outspoken statements of this kind has come from E. C. Colwell, president of the University of Chicago. He says very bluntly, "If fifty per cent of what college and university libraries contain was spread on the fields, it would enrich education as well as the soil." He decrys, and rightly, the institutional competition, pride, jealousy, and worship of numbers which is reflected in our great libraries, and some not so great, and, it may be added, in at least one library association. Colwell feels that a research library of about a million volumes, drawn chiefly from the current decade of operation ought to suffice and he sees no need of keeping the vestigial remains of bygone days. He advocates, as do many others, regional libraries to house little used items and national and international correlation of their work.²⁴

With all of this, except the fertilizer value of old paper, this writer agrees. The sixty-four million dollar question, however, remains to be answered. Which fifty per cent of the resources libraries now own, or are acquiring currently, is fit only to enrich the fields? If we set out to answer this question in earnest, carefully and accurately, as must be done if we are to do justice to our great cultural heritage, the present problems of library acquisition and of mobilization for use will, in comparison, pale into insignificance. In some degree, nevertheless, some time, some way, somehow, this question will have to be faced up to in the interests of keeping our resources manageable. To declare, in any comprehensive sense, what parts of the product of the human mind are 4-F and what parts are strong and vital and

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deserving of retention in the service of mankind, is a task which will require judgment and wisdom which is not now among us.

It is a characteristic of modern man that he has, with all his hardest work and many of his most difficult problems, turned to the machine, bending it to his will with remarkable, sometimes fantastic success. With the problems of mobilizing our knowledge too, and delivering it for use, we have turned and are turning hopefully to the machine. The literature of this search for machine solution of our bibliographical problems, still in its infancy, seems to have passed through two phases. First was the period of bright hope for spectacular success. This has been followed by a more restrained enthusiasm and we seem now to be entering into a period of facing the sober realities.

It seems certain that in one area, the quick delivery of books by libraries to distant points, either by electronic facsimile reproduction or photo image, success, in a practical sense, will come rather quickly. Such transmissions have already been made but at rather high expense. Should all our research libraries be willing to devote to the electronic transmission of writing only one-half of the hundreds of thousands of dollars they now spend for acquisitions, a network of regional super-libraries, for the quick facsimile transmission of literature, would, even at the present early state of development, be possible.

When we move into the area of answering what is where, the machine, at the moment, offers little hope in the sense of practical application to the millions upon millions of volumes now mobilized through the traditional apparatus of catalog cards, alphabetical indexes, and abstracts. This does not mean that a solution will not come for a determined attack on the problem is being made by able and intelligent men. At the Center for Documentation and Communication Research of Western Reserve University two large conferences, with particular emphasis on the machine processes, one but recently adjourned, have been held to consider the problems of storing and finding information. It is significant and encouraging that both of these conclaves attracted large numbers of people, the last one over 800, of which probably more than one-half were scientists, engineers, mathematicians, lawyers, and representatives of manufacturing and selling firms. This extensive participation of non-librarians in the problems of mastering the literature and making it quickly and economically findable is something new.

With such a sustained attack solution in some significant degree may come. All of us should, according to our talents, do what we

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can to help, and devoutly hope for success. The machine has done the bidding of man in so many ways, and in so doing has often been so phenomenally spectacular, and has so often made criticism and adhering to the old methods ridiculous, that it is a brash man indeed, nowadays, who dares express doubts. Nevertheless this observer, much as he hopes for machine success, does not believe that it will come in the sense of a complete and comprehensive control of the total world literature. The millions of books and other publications, now here and present on hundreds of miles of shelves, and the millions and millions of writings still to come, whether on endless miles of shelves, or in micro reduction, will defeat the machine, just as they encumber our present card and alphabetical controls and make them increasingly unsatisfactory.

These words, whether of wisdom or the lack of it, are here set down with the clear realization, but not the expectation, that they may, at some early conference on electronic miracles and marvels, have to be eaten. If so this will be cheerfully done in a final and complete bow and capitulation to the machine. Such final capitulation will perhaps not be possible after all for one whose memory goes back to the primitive days of an earth bound man, the horse and buggy, and the coal oil lamp. From the primitive viewpoint, some faint surprise may still be allowable if, as E. C. Berkeley confidently predicts in his *Giant Brains, or Machines that Think*,²⁵ machines will one day think intuitively, make brilliant guesses and leap to conclusions. Such soul and thought endowed machines, if they are in fact achieved should be able to solve all the bibliographical problems and complexities. If they do let not the shade of Emily Dickenson be disturbed by this paraphrasing of some of her lines:

"A little madness in Spring
Is wholesome even for a King
But God be with the Machine
Which ponders this tremendous scene—
This whole experiment of green
As if it were its own!"

Machine controls or not, librarianship, as a profession, would be the stronger and our mobilization problems would be simpler if we could somehow be immune to the creation of the unnecessary jargon and obfuscatory terminology which, in this twentieth century, afflicts practically every field and subject in which men write and publish.

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Librarians seem to be particularly subject to the wordy malaise of our times. Whatever our other gifts the gift to be simple, when we talk and write about ourselves and our work, is not one of them. We cite only a few examples.

If we have young professional workers in a training capacity, we inaccurately call them "internes" perhaps unconsciously hoping that we will thereby somehow dignify their status and ours and that some of the prestige of the medical profession, to which this term honestly and solely belongs, will somehow rub off on us. Similarly the ancient and honorable title of librarian no longer quite suffices so we increasingly call ourselves documentaryists, information officers, and it has even been suggested that we be "data engineers." We also "retrieve" (a fashionable word much in our current prints, but not up to now admitted to this chapter) information, eschewing the perfectly good, simple and semantically more exact four letter word "find." Fancy words, alas, do not make us anything we are not. Rather than simplifying our problems, which should be our continuing and unremitting effort, they complicate them.

An epitome of some kind in wordy complexity is reached in the following definition from a just published book: "Communication. The discriminatory response of an organism to a stimulus. Communication occurs when some environmental disturbance (stimulus) impinges on an organism and the organism does something about it (makes a discriminatory response). If stimulus is ignored by the organism, there has been no communication."²⁶

To this writer there is more than a little semantic static in this definition and in many of the others of the "Documentation Terminology" of which it is a part. It is the fascination for wordy complexity such as this, and the tendency not to use a half dozen simple and adequate words when a dozen complicated ones can be found or invented that swells the miles of books on our shelves and adds complexities both to the scholarly process and to the organization and management of knowledge. Such use of the language makes us wonder, is it possible that "The Last Canute" may not be a fantasy after all?

One thing is certain. The further our civilization progresses along present lines and trends the more people will be required to acquire and mobilize its literature. This could go on and on until, as this writer has predicted elsewhere, the literature will be so massive that everyone will be busy taking care of it and no one will have time to produce it. If, as has often been averred, librarians are meek, the

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prospects are good that they will indeed inherit the earth. Definitely they are now a fundamental and absolutely essential part of the scholarly and research processes. Without their acquisition and mobilization of the factual and wordy profusion streaming from our presses our present civilization could not long endure. This makes it appropriate to end this consideration of and reflection on the mobilization of the world's literature with these perceptive lines from Alexander Pope: "Index learning turns no student pale; Yet holds the world of science by the tail."

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Increasing Library Resources Through Cooperation

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ANYONE WHO HAS READ library periodicals regularly in recent years is undoubtedly aware that there is already an extensive literature on interlibrary cooperation of various kinds. For example, L. R. Wilson and M. F. Tauber list more than seventy-five such references in their chapter on "Cooperation and Specialization."¹ Much of the literature deals with arrangements for locating and providing improved access to the resources of various scholarly libraries. Because no single library can alone acquire and maintain all of the material its patrons may need at one time or another, such arrangements for sharing resources have become an integral and important aspect of twentieth century library administration, not only in academic libraries, but also in systems of public libraries both in America and abroad.

Other articles in this issue deal with the numerous examples of cooperation that have produced regional bibliographic files and have published various locating tools upon which libraries now depend regularly, for interlibrary lending of material. This paper will focus on various arrangements for cooperative planning in the actual acquisition of material by libraries, with particular emphasis upon college and research libraries.

At the turn of the century, most colleges and universities were building their libraries primarily in terms of meeting their own local needs, with little concern for each other's development. This was only natural, since none of the union lists, bibliographical centers, resources surveys, or even the organizations through which cooperative acquisitions programs now operate, were then in existence.

Gradually, this era of self-sufficiency gave way to a period of increasing cooperation among libraries, as rapid communication and

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transportation made it less necessary for a scholar to depend on a single collection in his own state or institution. College and university librarians, themselves, faced with faculty demands for developing collections of breadth and depth in more new subject fields than they could possibly afford individually, began to explore cooperative arrangements for dividing responsibilities for concentration, and for sharing their total holdings for the benefit of their respective groups of patrons. As interlibrary loan and the photo-reproduction of library resources became more speedy and economical, libraries began to depend more and more upon a concept of reasonable availability of material to be borrowed or microcopied as needed, in lieu of the costly local, independent acquisition, cataloging, and storage of infrequently used resources.

With these developments, librarians in various localities began to work more closely together to coordinate their individual acquisitions programs with those of neighboring institutions to build stronger holdings of mutual benefit, by agreements for specialization and the avoidance of unnecessary duplication. One example of this type of cooperative planning is the long-standing arrangement between the libraries of Duke University and the University of North Carolina. In this instance, a carefully worked out program of library cooperation was begun in 1933. An account of its operation, as reported by B. E. Powell in 1955, gives evidence as to its continued value and effectiveness.²

Briefly, this arrangement provided for joint library privileges and prompt interlibrary loan service for the patrons of the two cooperating libraries, exchange of current main entry cards to provide immediate information concerning the location of specific titles, and a statement as to specific categories of material in which major responsibility for collecting was assigned to one or the other library. The working agreement listed, for example, which state document series each library would collect and maintain for the benefit of both, which subject fields each would accept as fields of specialization, as well as certain areas in which both libraries would develop current strength because of continued need, but with close consultation before acquiring older or more expensive items. Coupled with an arrangement for the exchange of serial fragments to develop more nearly complete runs of specific sets, this cooperative program has for many years proved to be of great benefit to both libraries.

Recently, with the advent of the numerous expensive microcopy projects that have made large quantities of research material available

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to libraries, Duke and North Carolina have been dividing responsibility for acquiring specific offerings, as each proposal comes up for consideration. In at least one case, the subscription has been a joint purchase, in which both libraries actually share ownership of the material, an example of cooperative acquisition in its most literal sense.

An extension of the Duke-North Carolina program, involving an arrangement for dividing responsibility for developing resources on a geographic basis is the 1940 Duke-North Carolina-Tulane agreement for the acquisition of Latin American library materials. In this case, a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation provided funds for the purchase of publications relating to Latin America, with the understanding that each institution would accept primary responsibility for developing collections relating to specific countries. With Tulane focusing on Middle America (Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies), with Duke emphasizing Brazil, Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Columbia, and with North Carolina concentrating on Chile, Paraguay, Argentina, Venezuela, and Uruguay, each institution would be assured of access to strong Latin American holdings without the necessity of duplicating the resources of either of the other libraries.

Somewhat similar arrangements for library cooperation through sharing of resources and division of responsibility now exist between the University of Oklahoma and Oklahoma State University. Another cooperative arrangement, recently described in the *A.L.A. Bulletin*, has been developing among four private colleges and the James Jerome Hill Reference Library in St. Paul, Minnesota.⁸

Still another example of interlibrary cooperation among neighboring institutions is in effective operation in New England, in the Hampshire Inter-Library Center, involving Amherst, Smith, and Mount Holyoke colleges.⁴ This development has been successfully coordinating the resources of these three libraries for several years through the interchange of catalog cards, serials, and service privileges to the benefit of all three institutions. By eliminating unnecessary duplication of periodicals, and by sharing the cost of new titles needed by the member libraries, the total collections available to the cooperating colleges have been substantially strengthened.

While accessibility considerations, in terms of distance, will limit the extent to which other institutions could successfully undertake such arrangements, there are many other groups of colleges in close proximity to one another that would do well to explore seriously the benefits to be derived from even a modest program of coordinated

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acquisitions. Most large metropolitan areas have several such colleges, and apparently favorable conditions for such cooperation also exist in many smaller communities, where neighboring institutions are located in nearby college towns.

Where a strong state historical society exists it is not uncommon for close cooperation to exist between its library and the other major library or libraries in the state. In Minnesota, for example, there has long been effective coordination in the development of collections between the University of Minnesota Library, in Minneapolis, and the Minnesota Historical Society, in St. Paul. In spite of the fact that University departments such as history and journalism, as well as other units in the Graduate School, have a real interest in and need for "Minnesota material," the University Library, by agreement, depends almost entirely on the Historical Society for the maintenance of strong holdings in such categories as local histories, Minnesota manuscript collections, and Minnesota newspapers. Only in the case of the large, metropolitan dailies has the University developed its own files.

The Historical Society has accepted full responsibility for these categories, assuring the availability of rich resources for the area without need for costly duplication, particularly in collecting rural weeklies and even the daily papers of outlying cities and towns. The Historical Society is currently filming all of these local papers except for the Twin City titles now available on film from the publishers.

Through the close cooperation of the publisher, the local public library, the Historical Society, and the University Library, a project to microfilm a complete file of one of the largest Twin City metropolitan dailies was begun in 1956, using bound volumes contributed by the libraries with original holdings. It is hoped that before long similar cooperative arrangements can be worked out, with private financial help, to preserve the other Twin City newspapers, while existing files are still in suitable condition for filming.

Concerning manuscripts and archives, the Archives Division of the University Library collects and maintains materials directly pertaining to the University, as well as personal files and letters relating to individuals who have been primarily associated with the institution. The Historical Society collects resources on all other Minnesota figures, organizations, and communities. In the case of persons whose careers have embraced both University and non-University activities, there is a continuing interchange of information between

the Historical Society and the University as to the contents of their respective manuscript collections. Occasionally this results in an actual transfer of items to strengthen the stronger holdings of a particular person's papers. In other cases descriptions of holdings are exchanged so that a scholar working in either collection can identify quickly what supplementary material he may expect to find in the other collection. Since the two institutions are ten miles apart, with problems of heavy traffic, parking, and transportation time to be considered in any back-and-forth use of both collections, this cooperative arrangement is much appreciated by the institutions and their patrons alike.

One type of cooperation, now commonly practiced in the public library field may have merit for greater future consideration by college and university libraries than it has apparently received in the past. This is the arrangement by which smaller libraries may contract with larger libraries for the use of materials which the smaller library could not afford (and probably should not purchase, even if it had sufficient resources). Some counties in the United States have long provided area-wide library service without incurring the heavy expense of developing and maintaining their own costly reference and lending collections, by contracting with the principal municipal library in the county to extend its resources and facilities to all county residents for an agreed-upon service charge.

In spite of difficulties which would arise in attempting to apply this practice generally to the college and university libraries (as for example with respect to frequently used publications needed for course reserves), there may well be as yet unexplored possibilities for contract service among academic libraries that would have valuable acquisitions implications for all participating parties.

Perhaps the greatest single deterrent to such arrangements would be the fact that, to a liberal degree, small college libraries already have essentially free access to the stronger holdings of sister institutions through the interlibrary loan privilege. It is true that the lending library may refuse any given request, and occasionally does, if it involves non-circulating material or a large quantity for a single borrower. Also, the borrowing library incurs some expense for each loan, in the form of postage. However, such refusals to lend, or at least to provide photo-copies, are believed to be relatively rare; and of course postage, while it pays for transportation, provides no reimbursement whatever to the lending library for its considerable overhead in verifying citations, locating, charging, wrapping, and shipping books, and

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maintaining the correspondence files and records for such off-campus loans.

Staff time alone, required to handle interlibrary loans at one university, now costs over \$10,000 annually. Since this present system of liberal interlibrary lending obviously relieves many libraries of the necessity for costly acquisition of resources they can borrow, some form of financial arrangement for a more equitable sharing in the actual cost to the lending library may become necessary in the future. This might mean simply an overhead or transaction charge, or it might involve major service to one or more colleges, on an extension basis, by contract with a larger library.

At the national level, the enrichment of the holdings of scholarly libraries by cooperative acquisitions arrangements has been exemplified by a number of programs undertaken successfully since World War II. The most notable efforts to increase the "coverage" of material available in U. S. scholarly libraries have been described by T. R. Barcus and V. W. Clapp in 1955, in an article entitled "Collecting in the National Interest."⁵ This article cited the early efforts of Justin Winsor, E. C. Richardson, and Andrew Keogh to encourage scholarly libraries to avoid costly duplication of acquisitions by means of specialization agreements. It also told of the later activity of Archibald MacLeish, R. B. Downs and K. D. Metcalf in implementing these objectives through concrete and far-reaching programs for cooperation in acquiring, and locating in appropriate collections in the United States, at least one copy of the important scholarly works of other lands.

These efforts were carried forward, with varying degrees of success, in such undertakings as the War Emergency Program for Microcopying Research Materials in Britain, the work of the Joint Committee on Importations, the post-war Cooperative Acquisitions Project,⁶ and the currently operating Farmington Plan. Still another effective example of cooperative procurement by research libraries is the Documents Expediting Service for locating and obtaining for its subscribing members copies of various U. S. government publications not included in the regular depository library distribution.

Because both the origins and the achievements of the Farmington Plan project are already so well known, as they have been described by E. E. Williams in the *Farmington Plan Handbook*,⁷ it would be redundant to discuss the plan in detail here. Suffice it to say that in spite of its various limitations and drawbacks, the Farmington Plan

illustrates the extent to which research libraries have progressed from their early stages of merely talking about coordinated acquisitions, toward a genuine on-going program of increased coverage of current foreign publications through cooperation and specialization.

Like most successful cooperative undertakings, the Farmington Plan has been able to work out modifications in procedures to meet special situations. It has changed its subject allocations, dropped ineffective dealers in favor of more dependable agents, and in some cases substituted all-subject geographical assignments for the standard pattern of allocation based on subject classification, where realistic consideration of the total interest suggested such exceptions. Thus, the element of flexibility to permit change and growth to meet special circumstances has been an important contributing factor to the success and continued operation of this unique program.

Another aspect of cooperation among academic libraries in the acquisition of important materials involves the actual cooperative compilation, production, or publication of various books, indexes, journals, and guides, and in some cases the reproduction of library materials in various forms, for preservation and wider use.

In these categories there are the various union lists, resources surveys, and dissertation indexes and specialized bibliographies upon which libraries now depend, as a matter of course, as aids to regular reference and acquisitions operations. Groups such as the American Library Association Board on Resources, the A.L.A. Committee on Cooperative Microfilm Projects, and committees concerned with the development of needed reference tools, and the re-issue of scarce and physically deteriorating monographic works, bibliographies, and indexes are all contributing to this phase of cooperative acquisitions among libraries.

The various large microcopying projects that have developed since World War II appear to offer a particularly appropriate area for cooperative acquisitions among colleges. From the early days of the Harvard Foreign Newspaper Filming project and the various Library of Congress microfilm undertakings of the 1930's and 1940's we have seen the rise of a veritable flood of microfilm, microcard, and microprint projects now being offered to libraries on a subscription basis. These many projects, summarized recently in *College and Research Libraries*,⁸ are themselves becoming so costly, in the aggregate, that only the large and wealthy libraries can afford to subscribe to more than a few of them. It is certain that if college libraries gener-

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ally want or need to obtain ready access to these vast resources now being microcopied, they will somehow have to join together in various groups, to share the cost of some of these subscriptions, purchased jointly, or else divide responsibilities selectively among themselves, for complete coverage.

Some of these projects, like the Association of Research Libraries and Midwest Inter-Library Center newspaper filming programs, represent genuinely cooperative undertakings that have been library-initiated and developed by groups interested in preserving and obtaining access to, through shared purchase, far greater resources than they could afford individually. In the case of the A.R.L. Foreign Newspaper Microfilm Project⁹ more than fifty libraries now have access to the currently filmed files of nearly 150 carefully selected foreign papers, at no more than an individual library would have to pay to obtain only three or four titles independently. Unlike most microcopy projects which manufacture and supply a separate copy of the filmed material to each subscriber, the A.R.L. project simply purchases or produces a central, microfilm file of the selected papers, which subscribers may then borrow for local use as needed, with the privilege of purchasing, at cost, a positive film copy of any specific titles a member library may wish to own itself. In this respect, it is possibly the most notable example to date of genuine cooperative acquisitions among a sizable group of libraries for joint purchase and shared ownership of selected materials without costly duplication of copies.

In a statement to the A.R.L. on the various proposals for micro-copying publications listed in the Evans bibliography, Lawrence Wroth, in 1955, viewed with concern the sudden rash of gigantic projects that were then being proposed or offered for purchase by libraries.¹⁰ He suggested that some of these massive undertakings do not appear to arise from any expressed needs of libraries for copies of the material, that some of the projects seem not to have been thought through carefully, and that they may well discourage intelligent selective collecting, by diverting book funds increasingly for the costly purchases of such "package offers." Judging from the character of the several new package proposals that have been offered to libraries since 1955, it would seem that more library participation is called for in the formulation of future microcopy projects, if the fullest potentialities of these methods of acquiring research materials are to be realized. Without some such library sponsorship libraries may well fritter away their book funds increasingly in acquiring costly

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duplicate collections of copied material which most libraries probably do not need to own and maintain individually. More of the A.R.L.-M.I.L.C. pattern of cooperative acquisition and ownership of such material is clearly indicated for the future.

In recent years, groups of college and university libraries in the Southeastern section of the United States have been exploring various means of working together to coordinate their respective acquisitions programs for mutual benefit. These efforts, which have resulted in the establishment of the Southeastern Interlibrary Research Facility, have developed slowly, focusing primarily on surveys of resources and the interchange of holdings information. Whether S.I.R.F., as described in *College and Research Libraries*,¹¹ will ultimately bring about effective coordination of acquisitions among its members, remains to be seen.

The Midwest Inter-Library Center¹² in Chicago is perhaps the best example of action among scholarly libraries in extending, through co-operation, the total resources of a given geographical region. M.I.L.C. has been written about so often that it would be repetitious to outline its purposes and program here. Through its deposit program and its various arrangements for the joint acquisition of new, centrally located resources, it is unique in the extent to which it has succeeded in enriching the total reservoir of material available to its eighteen member libraries, and also in the extent of the resulting savings it has made possible.

In addition to the thousands of dollars worth of valuable shelf space M.I.L.C. members have gained in their own libraries by depositing quantities of less-used publications at the Center, in selected categories, M.I.L.C. has also relieved each library of the expense of acquiring and maintaining independent, duplicate holdings of such material in the future. Members may now acquire selectively, in these categories, only what they need for current use, with assurance that more extensive holdings will be available at M.I.L.C.

Included in the program are such broad groups of publications as foreign dissertations, state documents, college catalogs, textbooks, and processed U. S. government documents. In these and numerous other cooperatively selected categories, M.I.L.C. as an organization has accepted full responsibility for maintaining strong holdings on behalf of its members. It acquires currently, not only specific serials recommended by vote of its constituent libraries, but also some costly unit collections of material not needed to be duplicated in the region. It

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collects the briefs and records of U. S. Courts of Appeals, corporation reports, foreign government information bulletins and monitored reports of foreign radio broadcasts, Rand Corporation reports, O.S.R.D. reports, and foreign documents from more than one hundred selected nations, as well as files of foreign language newspapers published in the United States.

The M.I.L.C. foreign newspaper project, initiated for its members, has now been superseded by the more comprehensive A.R.L. project which is administered by the Center under contract. M.I.L.C. still maintains its original program for the joint acquisition of a selection of domestic papers on film, for its membership, although this, too, may eventually lead to an expanded project open to all libraries.

With the aid of the National Science Foundation, M.I.L.C. is now collecting regularly all periodicals indexed in *Chemical Abstracts* which are not available in one or more member libraries, thus assuring access, somewhere in the Midwest region, to every item indexed in this valuable tool.¹⁸

Recently M.I.L.C. has been exploring the possibility of shared subscriptions to certain microcopy projects among its members, in the interest of reducing unnecessary duplication of this material. As in the case of the Evans proposals, it is clear that each member library will not need its own copy of such contemplated projects, for example, as all of the publications listed in the Wing bibliography, if by a joint purchase ready access to the material can be assured. Some members believe that M.I.L.C. itself might well ultimately sponsor the microcopying of needed materials under an arrangement whereby libraries could, by sharing in the initial production cost, develop a central file of desired microcopies available for loan rather than widespread purchase. Such a development would provide for the sale of positive duplicates only if requested. The intent would be to depend increasingly on loans from the central file rather than the building of duplicate collections of such materials in the various libraries.

Whether such arrangements materialize or not, it is evident that future microcopying projects will be useful to libraries, only to the extent that the producers of microfilm, microcard, and microprint consider realistically the needs of various types of libraries in relation to contemplated copying programs. More selectivity, it would seem, may be indicated in some mass copying projects; and in some instances the principle of selling "access" to material, in lieu of selling many

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individually owned copies, might be worth exploring, even by some of the commercial producers, as they formulate new proposals.

In conclusion, it may be said that as both the quantity of material needed by libraries has increased and the cost of publications has continued to rise, especially in recent years, the era of self-sufficiency among scholarly libraries (which never was fully achieved, even in earlier days) has given way to increased cooperation. Much has been written about interlibrary cooperation, and a goodly number of efforts at coordinated acquisitions have been undertaken. It is fair to hazard a guess that, in the future, more and more formerly independent college and research libraries will develop various programs of coordinated acquisitions, including, where feasible, joint purchase and actual joint ownership of material.

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Cooperation Among Colleges

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THE PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE on Education

Beyond the High School" is a distinctly clumsy title, but it was apparently chosen in order to encompass all forms of higher education. To some extent we are faced with the same problem when we consider cooperative library schemes in the academic world. It is fairly simple to separate the universities from other forms of higher institutions, but what shall be included under the umbrella of "college" is more difficult. For the purposes of this report, the colleges will include the four-year college, the two- or three-year college, the teachers college, and the professional and technical institution of less than university proportions.

These do not form a homogeneous group; not even one sub-group within this spread forms a homogeneous cluster. Their points of similarity are mainly negative: most do not have extensive graduate and research programs, most do not have large and diversified library staffs, most have meager library budgets and collections in comparison with universities, and most of the college libraries have limited freedom to move toward cooperative ventures. Undergraduate colleges which are parts of universities will not be probed. It is assumed that if there are moves afoot to coordinate and cooperate among these units, these moves are parts of whatever schemes serve the parent university libraries.

In examining the state of the non-university academic libraries, it seems important to have in mind some basic facts concerning their number, type, staffing, collection-size, support, variety, enrollment, and distribution, because these factors affect their ability and will to cooperate. In its fall 1955 enrollment survey, the U. S. Office of Education found that of the 2,720,929 students enrolled in higher institutions, 56% were in publicly controlled and 44% in privately controlled institutions.¹ In 141 universities there were 1,241,101 students, or

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45.6% of the total enrolled. The remainder—more than half of the students in higher education—were attending some 1,700 other institutions. It is these 1,700 institutional libraries that form the universe of libraries on which this chapter attempts to report. In 732 liberal arts colleges there were 712,685 students or 26.2% of the total enrollees, in 480 separately organized professional schools 415,423 or 15.3% and in junior colleges 351,720 or 12.9%.

While the college and university library statistics as reported in *College and Research Libraries*² represent only a part of the total number of collegiate institutions in the United States, and while the categories which form these groups differ somewhat from the U. S. Office of Education summary, a study of these data gives a clue to the state of college libraries. The ninety-two Group II college libraries which reported their 1955-56 figures had collections, for instance, that ranged from 23,000 volumes to 418,000 volumes, with a median of 121,552. In the Group III libraries, with 112 reporting, the range in size of collections was from 16,435 volumes to 166,091, with a median of 46,009. In this relatively large sample of 204 collections, only ten contained more than 250,000 volumes, and only thirty-six contained more than 150,000 volumes. Some eighteen of the libraries in Groups II and III had total operating expenditures in excess of \$100,000, but characteristically the operating budget was far lower.

The undergraduate enrollment in Group II institutions ranged from 389 to 8,434 students, with a median of 1,316, and graduate enrollment from zero to 957, with a median of seventy-six. In the Group III colleges, enrollment of undergraduates ranged from 114 students to 2,548, with a median of 619, and graduate enrollment from zero to 196, with a median of sixteen. While the Group II sample of ninety-two institutions probably represents a sizable proportion of the college libraries which fit the description of that category, the Group III sample is a far smaller proportion of the universe of roughly comparable college libraries.

The junior college statistics for 1955-56 presented some figures for 147 institutions—a good sample in terms of size and diversity of this type of institution. Here the great differences between private and public institutions are vivid, affecting enrollment, book needs, finances and staffing. The range in bookstock was from 600 volumes to 87,910, in day student enrollment from thirty to 7,456, in evening student enrollment from zero to 12,617. Library operating expenditures ranged from \$641 to \$135,385 and the number of staff members from one-

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half to nineteen. Generalizations concerning this group of institutions are obviously preposterous, but it is safe to assume that the staffing of both Group III libraries and junior college libraries typically consisted of from two to three persons, one-half of whom were trained librarians. The characteristic staffing of the Group II libraries consisted of about six professional and five non-professional persons, a total of just under eleven persons.

The teachers colleges also presented an interesting statistical picture. Their 1955-56 library figures, collected from ninety-three libraries, showed collections ranging from 13,735 volumes to 174,577, with a median of 53,073. Their staffing was normally somewhat heavier on the professional side, with about four trained persons to two non-professional assistants. The characteristic total staffing in the libraries of the teachers colleges reporting was five persons.

The median book budgets reported were \$17,600 in Group II libraries, \$6,300 in Group III, \$2,250 in junior colleges, and \$9,000 in teachers colleges.

The pertinence of these data to a study of cooperation on the college level is this: staffing is minimal, money so meager that it must go into bread-and-butter materials, and collections often too small for the demands placed on them. There are outstanding exceptions in every category, but the broad picture is one of small institutions with small libraries, spattered across the map of the country.

Inter-institution cooperation for both public and private college libraries requires as a base permissive support from the parent institutions. While, as K. D. Metcalf⁸ and others have pointed out, the seemingly inevitable growth of academic libraries and library budgets calls for cooperation among institutions, many factors stand in the way of effective action. Institutional rivalry, the heritage of institutional autonomy, inertia, the dread of inconvenience which obscures the view of potential benefits, the dearth of obvious collaborators, financial and legal obstacles, lack of time and skill required for fact-finding studies of cooperative possibilities—these are only a few of the barriers to be overcome on the way to effective joint action. But the proliferation of materials pertinent to college programs, the swelling of enrollments, the dearth of librarians, the dwindling buying power of library budgets, the crowding of library quarters, and the increasing emphasis on independent work for able students and on research facilities for faculty members are counterbalancing factors, in many ways. For the libraries that have good collections and are able to maintain them at

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a satisfactory level, the cooperative schemes now in motion constitute a "share the wealth" program. For the really small libraries which are seriously short of material and personnel, comparable projects might turn out to be "share the poverty" programs. Their problems are to acquire much needed basic books and periodicals and enough staff to render their collections of real use.

There is real danger that schemes which work among one group of libraries will be assumed to be universal panaceas. Each college has the obligation to offer to its constituency the essential materials for higher education, including a reasonable minimum of supporting material for faculty study; in each college this core is determined by the nature and compass of its curriculum and the methods of instruction selected by its faculty. It is a truism that the college library exists to serve the specific purposes of the parent college, but all too often the elaborate course descriptions found in the college catalog cannot possibly be adequately taught from the library resources at hand. Either the program must be modified to match the limitations of the library resources or the library resources must be modified to match the demands of the program. The library can be modified in two basic ways, and often both are required for successful achievement of academic claims: the library within the college must be enriched, and access to less commonly needed materials must be found. It is the latter that calls for cooperation.

Various elements are necessary for any form of joint effort. First, there must be others with whom to cooperate, and in the cases of hundreds of smaller institutions physical isolation from other libraries of any sort make direct joint schemes of questionable value. Second, there must be fundamental unity of purpose among cooperating institutions; if their purposes are too dissimilar or their other differences too great joint action may be impractical. (After negotiating a "reciprocal" agreement with a large college library, one waggish junior college librarian reported, "I've done the cooking; they'll have to do the operating.") Third, the power for cooperation among college libraries must come from the colleges rather than their libraries alone. Frequently the bases of control and support for institutions that can see benefits in joint library action differ so greatly that the legal and accounting problems offset the library gains. Fourth, it takes man-hours to investigate and develop and maintain workable schemes of cooperation and the staffs of most of the smaller institutions find, like the Queen in *Alice Through the Looking Glass*, that ". . . here, you see, it

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takes all the running you can do, to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere else, you must run at least twice as fast as that!" It is hard to get hold of one's bootstraps while running.

Many of the known cases of cooperation among college libraries occur with fairly strong and large libraries. Because they promise some help for all sizes and kinds of academic libraries within their boundaries, two state-wide efforts to help libraries are worth examination. Neither has moved quickly, and neither has achieved even a fraction of its objectives, but both show signs of success in the long run. If these projects do succeed, they may be of particular value to a large number of smaller colleges which might otherwise never be enabled to work cooperatively.

The Ohio State Plan. Two organizations, the Ohio College Association and the Ohio Library Association (through its College and University Section), are movers and shakers in the area of library cooperation. The Ohio College Association has a College Librarians' Section, and its members are, in the main, members of the College and University Section of the Ohio Library Association. This common denominator has been of benefit in helping the two organizations move toward certain library goals.

Like many efforts at cooperation, the state-wide concept in Ohio has sprung from informal beginnings. In December, 1951, the librarians of a group of colleges and universities—Akron, Denison, Kenyon, Ohio Wesleyan and Wooster—met to discuss the possibilities of library cooperation. Seven areas were considered: (1) revision of the *Regional List of Serials in the College and University Libraries of Ohio*, (2) planning cooperatively for the acquisition of expensive, scholarly works, (3) encouragement of the use of various types of photographic reproduction, (4) planning for acquisition, retention, and binding of specified serials for use of all libraries in the cooperating group, (5) development of a regional or Ohio bibliographic center, (6) development of a cooperative housing and acquisitions center, and (7) investigation of possibilities of cooperation in the Midwest Inter-Library Center. These last three considerations were recognized as requiring the endorsement of the college and university administrators. Later the group was made a formal joint committee of the Ohio College Association and the College and University Section of the Ohio Library Association. In addition, a committee of college presidents was named by the Ohio College Association to further this work.

Concurrently, there were further moves toward joint action: the

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state librarian early offered his assistance, cooperation in the Regional Union List at Western Reserve University Library was extended to include more libraries, pilot studies were made on specific problems, and a sub-committee of the Ohio Library Association committee continued to study the need for some type of centralized service library.

In the spring of 1953, the joint committee recommended that a survey be made, under the auspices of the Ohio College Association, to determine particular ways in which Ohio college and university libraries could most advantageously cooperate. An appeal for outside funds to make this survey failed, so no survey was made. Forward movement on a state-wide basis stopped, but at least one cooperative project in a smaller geographic area was initiated. With the help of a United States Steel grant, Denison, Kenyon, and Ohio Wesleyan resumed work on a union list of their periodicals and concrete efforts were initiated to make the total holdings of the three libraries less overlapping, more diversified and of greater usefulness.

Interest in state-wide library cooperation persisted in both the Ohio College Association and the Ohio Library Association. The state librarian, meeting with the joint committee in early 1957, proposed that the State Library, rather than any newly created library's library, be considered in any plans for integration and support of academic libraries in Ohio. At this meeting, too, the newly appointed Governor's Commission to Study Higher Education in Ohio was considered as an agency through which the long-desired college library survey might be effected.

At the April, 1957, meeting of the Ohio College Association,⁴ proposals were presented for action: one to request the Ohio State Library Board to establish a program which would permit the State Library, through increased funds and quarters, to extend its services to the academic libraries of the state, and the second that a thorough survey of libraries be included in the proposed survey of colleges to be made by the Governor's Commission to Study Higher Education in Ohio. This second proposal was endorsed by the Ohio College Association, but the first proposal was referred back to the College Librarians' Section for detailed recommendations relative to its implementation and operation. The next step, then, is a more precise development of plans whereby the State Library would act as a supporting library for colleges and universities in Ohio.

The New York State Plan. Late in 1952, The Board of Regents of New York State, at the request of C. V. Newsom, then associate com-

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missioner of education, appointed a Temporary Advisory Committee on College Library Problems, consisting of nine university, college, and research library representatives. Meeting with this committee were representatives from the State University and the State Education Department, including the State Library. The aims of this group were to explore "ways in which greater integration of effort and resources may be developed among the college and university libraries of the state with the State Library . . . to advise on any studies that may be necessary, to help in the interpretation and presentation of the findings, and to assist in the development of policies that may follow."⁵

After several meetings, it was decided by the group that the problems facing college libraries were fundamentally different from those facing university and research libraries, so the committee was divided into two sub-committees. The college sub-committee, in cooperation with members of the State Education Department, surveyed college libraries by means of a questionnaire and visitations. With the data thus gathered and after more meetings to discuss facts and theories, a report was presented, "A Plan for Meeting College Library Problems. . . ."

As was hazily known at the start, the study of the 150 academic libraries in institutions below the university level showed vast differences in problems, needs, and possible courses of action. Crowded buildings were characteristic of many, even though the typical collection was small. In the area of metropolitan New York, it was obvious that students relied heavily on other libraries than those in the institutions in which they were enrolled. In many instances this was a reasonable and desirable state of affairs, but in many others it was obviously unreasonable and undesirable. Most college libraries proved to have need of periodical files, documents, and other research materials which they did not own, but these needs differed radically from college to college. In up-state New York, faculty members were critically short of materials for their own professional development or research. While interlibrary loan was used sporadically to relieve this situation, the lack of finding tools and the circuitousness of procedure seemed to limit the usefulness of this service. Above all, it was apparent that the big problem for the smaller institutions was not the elimination of less active material but the procuring of basic material on the home-plate plus access to more abstruse materials from an appropriate source.

College presidents, deans, and financial officers tended to view

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favorably the idea that the State Library, rich in a variety of fields, might be more fully used to supplement the collections of the local colleges. Librarians and faculty members were more skeptical; they feared that library budgets—already too small for routine purchases—might be cut and that reliance on the State Library and other college libraries might prove cumbersome and inefficient. Because it was clear that the typical college library in any type of undergraduate institution in the state must define and then carry its own proper load, the report described in detail the nature of that load. The summary of that description follows:

The committee wishes to re-emphasize its conviction that the first requirement for all colleges is a good library on the premises. This means quarters which are appropriate for their purpose and adequate in size for both readers and books. It means a competent and sufficiently numerous staff. It means a book budget large enough and stable enough to assure the purchase of books, periodicals and other library materials pertinent to the college's program.

The committee does not envisage an enrichment of the State Library which takes the place of an enrichment of the individual, on-the-spot college libraries. It does hope that the State Library can be rendered able to supply materials and services which, though they may be out of reach for the separate colleges if each tries to supply them at home, will prove to be economical, efficient and highly beneficial if offered by one center for all.⁶

Seven basic recommendations were made by the college subcommittee:

1. The State Library should be strengthened to serve as a "library's library" for New York State. In place of the creation of any new unit to serve as a supporting tissue for academic libraries in New York State, the State Library should be strengthened to meet these needs. For years the State Library had offered its services and resources to the colleges, but it required more support and staff to enlarge its college-related activities. Its collection already contained much that would meet the extraordinary needs of colleges. The tax dollar would be spent more effectively by adding to the State Library than by starting a new library's library from scratch. The legal relation of the State Library to all educational institutions within New York, public or private, makes it an appropriate source of help: the facilities of the State Library are available as a right rather than a privilege.

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The State Library's periodicals—as many continuations as possible in smaller libraries; (3) "background" books and government publications—fe

neral areas of responsibility would be: (1) as much of the scholarly periodicals and (2) reference works beyond the reach of e books and very expensive books; (4) vague "less-used" category); (5) government publications—federal, state, local; (6) college and university catalogs in retrospective files; (7) theses and dissertations; (8) corporation and other reports; (9) lesser works of major writers; (10) duplicates of books outdated and commonly held by many colleges; (11) bibliography; (12) library literature; (13) developing fields.

2. A catalog of the State Library holdings should be prepared and distributed to the college libraries.

3. A position of college library consultant should be created.
4. Publicity on the State Library and its functions should be increased.
5. The State Library should have a photoduplication service.
6. Interlibrary loan facilities in the State Library should be improved.

7. Further research on specific problems should be undertaken.

Some of the recommendations have been implemented. The State Library book budget has been increased, though no special emphasis was placed on its intention to orient its acquisitions program to meet the needs of colleges. Until detailed studies are made of college library needs, a precise program for the State Library, in both acquisitions and services, cannot be laid out. A short-title catalog of the social sciences was printed and widely distributed. Its primary function is a finding-list aid in interlibrary loan. Other volumes are to follow if the first volume proves useful.

The position of college library consultant was established for a trial flight from January through June 1955. The writer was appointed college library consultant for the six months' trial, in part because it was felt that a librarian who had served on the college library sub-committee might be better equipped to move quickly and to evaluate the potentialities of the job.

The work of the consultant tended to fall into three areas: a study of the State Library in terms of its capacity to support college libraries, visitations to colleges, and research into as many aspects of college and college library needs as was possible. All activities had to be carried on concurrently as the time was so short, and much that was set in motion could not be completed in the time allowed.

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The study of the State Library indicated that its collections could, with relatively little extension, serve many college library needs insofar as it was then possible to pin-point those needs. The primary difficulties faced by the State Library lay in the areas of services. The staff were already overloaded in many areas, hence interlibrary loan service was cumbersome and very slow. The short-title catalog was in preparation, but in general the college librarians throughout the state had no clue to the availability of material in the State Library except from general descriptions of its strengths and weaknesses. Because of a lack of manpower and money, the library was severely handicapped in its efforts to produce photocopies of its holdings. Its gifts and exchange staff was too small for the regular load, and without more information from the field and more money and personnel within the library, no development of an exchange program for college libraries could be handled. Certain pilot schemes worked well. They indicated that the State Library could serve lesser libraries with great effectiveness if supported adequately. A typical instance involved a term-long loan of art books to a junior college where a new course was on trial. The books were used intensively but carefully in the junior college. There were two by-products of this assistance: the college decided to retain the course in its program, which it probably might not have done without the temporary enrichment of its library, and the college started its own acquisitions program in art with real evidence of the value and usefulness of specific titles.

Other instances of the State Library's successful help include relations with colleges in the Albany area. Among the working schemes is one involving messenger service which circles from one to another of the local colleges and the State Library, making prompt borrowing feasible. The State Library has the will to serve, and its officers are creative and responsive. They need the evidence that can probably be supplied only through the agency of a permanent college library consultant if they are to obtain staff, space, equipment, and funds to supply excellent service to New York State college libraries.

The visits to colleges were made only on the invitation of the institution. The college library sub-committee's recommendation was that advisory services be offered, as the position would lose in usefulness if it became authoritarian. About thirty-five excursions were made to colleges, some lasting two or three days. The consultant usually met with the president, dean, and faculty members as well as with the librarians, and discussion was informal in all cases. The aim of the

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consultant was to explore the situation of the particular college and its library, to give factual information or to undertake to supply it later, to advise on policies and procedures and to listen. In many ways, the chance to discuss their problems and ideas with an interested and relatively expert outsider served as a sort of therapy; by trying to make matters clear to the consultant, the officers and librarians often clarified their own aims and found their own solutions. Other visits were undertaken as a part of a team from the office of the associate or assistant commissioner. These were more formal, but again the most fruitful results came from advisory and informational services. College presidents and librarians expressed great interest in having the position of college library consultant made permanent.

The third area of activity of the consultant was the amassing of data on colleges and their libraries, and of all sorts of information relevant to library developments elsewhere. It also included some original research on library problems, with special reference to cooperative possibilities, building and equipment, collection development, and staff betterment.

As of July, 1957, the position is about to be established on a permanent base; it has taken two years to get budget authorization and to find suitable candidates.

The way in which the new college library consultant will operate will depend very largely on his personal approach to the job. Purposely no formal job-description was made, because the individual must be free to exploit every avenue which might lead to improvement of the individual libraries and of the academic library picture as a whole.

The report of the sub-committee on the college library was essentially a plan, and as such is still sound. Its major recommendations are the enrichment of the State Library so that it can effectively extend its resources and services to college libraries of the state, and the creation of the position of college library consultant as the moving force and liaison officer in stimulating and coordinating library development. With the institution of the permanent consultant in 1957-58, real progress can be made on the state-wide college library problem.

The College of Seminary Library, Naperville, Illinois. Some smaller colleges, located close to each other, but differing in government, purposes and size, may feel that joint operations are too complicated to be feasible. They might take heart, however, from one known instance where cooperation between very different institutions has

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gone the whole way—one building, an amalgamated collection, a central staff.

Two higher institutions in Naperville, Illinois, have joined forces to create a joint library.⁷ They are the Evangelical Theological Seminary and North Central College. The former is a graduate professional school of about 150 students, and the latter is a liberal arts, coeducational institution with an enrollment of about 800 students. Both are affiliated with the Evangelical United Brethren Church, though each has its own Board of Trustees and is separately administered.

Apparently the Seminary was the first to feel the sharp pinch of need for library quarters and staff. Across the street, the college was planning to build additional science laboratories. After due consideration by both institutions, it was decided to build one library to serve both groups, and to convert the old library of the college into laboratories.

In 1954 a handsome new joint library was dedicated, with a common administration and service center, and with distinct book and reading wings for the college and the seminary. Articles of Incorporation were patterned after those of the Joint University Libraries at Nashville. Ownership is vested in the College and Seminary Library, Incorporated, which has its own Board of Trustees. This Board is composed of nine members, four from the group elected by the Trustees of the college, three by the Trustees of the seminary, plus the presidents of the two institutions.

The Board has at least three committees: Executive, Finance, and an Advisory Committee consisting of three faculty members of the college, two faculty members of the seminary, and the presidents. The director of the library is responsible to the Executive Committee. All books previously owned by a constituent institution remain vested in that institution, unless transferred to the College and Seminary Library, Incorporated. Books acquired after the act of incorporation are the property of the College and Seminary Library, Incorporated. The Board of Trustees of the library annually determines the sum which each institution shall be requested to contribute to operate the common library.

When the libraries were amalgamated, the college owned about 40,000 volumes and the seminary 18,000. The capacity of the building is 140,000 volumes. It seats 340 readers. When the money was raised for the building, an additional amount was procured to become an endowment which yields an annual income used for the support of

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the library. A staff including four professional librarians serves the total constituency, and according to the librarian, the unified library is efficient, economical, and satisfactory to all concerned.

The North Texas Project. Seven libraries in the North Texas region, with a bookstock in 1943 of 810,000 volumes, and all within an hour's driving distance of each other, joined forces in late 1942 to see what could be done cooperatively to better their holdings and services.⁸ A. F. Kuhlman, director of the Joint University Libraries at Nashville, surveyed the situation and recommended: the organization of the North Texas regional libraries with a coordinator or director; the mimeographing of a union list of serials; the expansion of the serial resources through planned, cooperative purchasing; cooperative acquisition of additional reference and bibliographic tools; a regional program for collection of government documents, newspapers, and manuscript collections; a union catalog of books; proper financial support; systematic planning for the strengthening of library resources; and local coordination of libraries.

As reported in the January, 1949, issue of *College and Research Libraries*, two of the recommendations had been put into effect: the mimeographing of a union list of serials, and the expansion of the serial resources through planned, cooperative purchasing. At a meeting of all the libraries represented in the North Texas Regional Union List of Serials, held in the fall of 1953, it was decided to discontinue the project as various libraries had already withdrawn. The recommendation was made that at some future date a new project be brought into being if means of support could be found.

The St. Paul Project. Since 1951, four colleges in St. Paul, Minnesota, have been involved in a cooperative project.⁹ These colleges are Hamline University, Macalester College, the College of St. Catherine and the College of St. Thomas. All are liberal arts institutions. Two are coeducational, one is for men and one for women. At the time of the start of their venture, their collections averaged about 65,000 volumes.

Like many cooperative schemes, this one started extremely informally and has progressed to a more sophisticated program. The first meetings of the librarians of these colleges were discussions of specific problems and an interchange of helpful information concerning dealers, binders, and the like. Somewhat later, the librarians turned their attention to the periodicals problems which faced them all, and out of this consideration developed a project for a union list of periodical

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holdings. This first list was primarily a finding list and was valuable in terms of interlibrary usage.

In April, 1952, a new venture called the Inter-College-Hill Reference Library Project was started. A grant of \$2,500 was made by the Trustees of the Hill Family Foundation to finance a survey of the libraries and an exploration of various ideas for developing a cooperative college library project that would include not only these four college libraries but the James Jerome Hill Reference Library in St. Paul. This survey was also made by Kuhlman. Two major library projects have resulted thus far from the Kuhlman report. They are the union list, *Periodical Holdings in Eight Minnesota Libraries*, and the dexigraphed catalog of the holdings of the Hill Reference Library. The union list of periodicals includes not only the holdings of the four original libraries, but those of Carleton College and St. Olaf College in Northfield, Minnesota, which is close to St. Paul. It includes also the holdings of the Hill Reference Library and the St. Paul Public Library. These last two libraries are housed in conjoined buildings. According to Harold Hughesdon and Gertrude Costello the resulting list is more than a finding list. It is intended to serve as a guide in planning cooperative storage, the selection of new titles, the exchange of holdings, and the discarding of duplicates. Contrary to what might have been expected, the first half of the list showed that more than one-third of the titles were currently received in only one of the St. Paul libraries. In short, the diversity of titles among the libraries was greater than one might have expected, and hence the list has increased value. Now that the list has been completed, the plan is to consolidate holdings by transferring or depositing both complete and partial sets in the library in which they will be most useful.

The grant also financed the other major library project, the dexigraphed classed catalog of the Hill Reference Library. A copy of this catalog has been placed in each of the four St. Paul college libraries and in the St. Paul Public Library. It is hoped that this catalog, available to faculty and students in each institution, will make for better book selection and will provide better facilities for locating materials in the area. It is still too soon to report on the success of this venture.

Honnold Library: The Associated Colleges at Claremont. The Honnold Library serves as the central library for five colleges: Pomona College, Claremont Men's College, Claremont Graduate School, Harvey Mudd College, and Scripps College.¹⁰ The staff also has charge of and services five science libraries on the Pomona College

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campus; the science materials for the other colleges are in Honnold. Scripps College, in addition to contributing to the support of the Honnold Library, maintains its own library although all cataloging, ordering, binding, and interlibrary loans for that library are handled in Honnold by the Honnold staff.

The expenses are divided into two categories: (1) joint service costs (cataloging, ordering, binding, and interlibrary loans), and (2) public service costs (circulation, reference, reserve room, documents, rare books, periodicals). The costs of joint services are assessed in proportion to the amount of work done for a college—books cataloged, ordered, and bound for that college. The costs of public service are assessed according to the number of students and faculty members in the particular college. Library service for the California Theological Seminary, which is not a member of the Associated Colleges, will be sold to that institution at \$25 per student or faculty member.

On the favorable side, it is safe to say that the five colleges are getting better library resources and services as a group than they could possibly afford separately. The library has served as a unifying force for the colleges.

On the unfavorable side, it is possible that the colleges have lost, in some degree, the small college atmosphere they have sought to maintain, because of having one single and relatively large library. In any difficulty arising between the students or faculty of any college on the one hand and the library on the other, the college administration in question is apt to take the view of its students or faculty members. To offset this, the other college administrations will be able to view the situation quite impartially and the library will frequently gain support from the other administrations. This situation has its undesirable features. It is necessary to bear in mind that any friction between the colleges will be bad for the joint library, and the library should avoid being the cause of it. To prevent problems from arising which may become administrative matters, and to avoid seeming to favor one college above another, is often difficult.

As the collection is used by all members of all colleges, the system of assessing each college for the number of books bought and processed at its request may be basically inequitable. In effect, it tends to penalize that college which seeks most strenuously to improve the book collection.

The Hampshire Inter-Library Center. The Hampshire Inter-Library Center is operated by a group of college libraries that are distinctly

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atypical. All are old libraries with large and unusually rich holdings. The curricula they serve are enough alike to provide, in general, a common base for acquisitions, yet the emphases in each college differ sufficiently to make consolidation of some holdings feasible. Smaller college libraries can learn much from a study of the literature concerning H.I.L.C. because that literature is explicit about the difficulties to be encountered as well as the extent and kind of gain to be expected. Implicit in the development of H.I.L.C., however, is the assumption that the first obligation of each participating library is to supply commonly needed materials in each library, and to share only those items which are less in demand. Until small colleges, no matter how convenient their physical relation to each other, can be sure they are meeting their local obligation, there may be little left-over money or manpower to launch and maintain any major cooperative scheme.

From the number of times that its pattern has been imitated, it is obvious that the Joint University Libraries at Nashville is a successful prototype of cooperative effort. Detailed consideration of this project belongs in the university library context, but its principles apply in a college context as well. Again the literature is available and plentiful on this well-established operation. The example of the Joint University Libraries should help institutions that are adjacent but different in type of control to overcome the technical difficulties of joint action where the gains of such action would be significant.

In summary, it seems fairly clear that the typical academic library on the college level is isolated. It is limited in funds, collection, and manpower. It is in need of the kind of support that might come from larger cooperative efforts rather than a tit-for-tat collaboration with one or two other small libraries. Large units of service, such as states or regions, may be slow to develop, but offer the advantages of know-how and greater resources of all sorts. Characteristically there are few satisfactory instances of worth-while cooperation among the lesser libraries, at least there are few reported instances of successful cooperation. Perhaps there would be more were there more publicity given to those which a diligent search of the literature failed to identify. Lest this seem too gloomy an account, final emphasis should not be limited to the obstacles but placed squarely on the benefits to be derived. There is need for objectivity, but even more there is need for imagination, courage, and the will to explore new ideas.

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Cooperation Among Public Libraries

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HOW DO THE PUBLIC LIBRARIES of the United States fit into the total picture of providing library resources for all our people as we try to cope with the tremendous problems facing us at this mid-point of the twentieth century? The concept of over-all cooperation envisages a national network of libraries—public, school, college, university, and special—which shall become a library system to insure complete library coverage, much as the school system undertakes to furnish education for all the children.

Both the spirit of the library system idea and a guide for the practical means of its accomplishment are embodied in a statement of new minimum standards developed and approved by the American Library Association in 1956 for the evaluation of "Public Library Service." As the document itself proposes: The cooperative approach on the part of libraries is its most important single recommendation. Only by working together, sharing services as well as materials, can the public library in mid-century America hope to meet the full needs of its users. Nor will the creation of new library systems through formal or informal arrangements necessarily weaken or eliminate a library which now serves its small community well. On the contrary, it will offer that library and its users greatly expanded resources and services which may at the moment be "out-of-reach," but which could actually be made available in the foreseeable future if not at once.

Developed in qualitative but very practical terms, the new standards apply to all aspects of public library service including the structure and government of libraries, books and non-book materials, personnel, the organization and control of materials, buildings, and daily library operations. Each recommendation put forward is advanced from the standpoint of what it will contribute to a functional system and whether it looks directly toward the primary objective of making superior public library services available to each isolated rural com-

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munity as well as to the metropolis. The new public library standards imply that, wherever the library and whatever its size, its resources belong to and shall ultimately be shared by all American communities.

But, if the public library system idea is to be developed in any real sense, public libraries generally must first cross political barriers so that the emphasis is less on the political unit served, whether city, county, or state, and more on bringing service to all the people wherever they may live and, secondly, there will need to be a greater breakdown of barriers between all kinds of libraries.

Progress has been made along both lines. The liberalization of inter-library loans is one example of the breakdown of compartmentalization, both in geographic units and among types of libraries. With the advent of the Bibliographic Center sponsored by the Pacific Northwest Library Association, the libraries in the Pacific Northwest, in 1942, liberalized their code to read: "As an expression of the view that each library holds its books in trust for the region as a whole, the libraries of the Pacific Northwest lend each other books for all kinds and conditions of clients, for any purpose, and for any length of time within reason." As a result of this liberalization of the code and the ability to locate books readily through the union catalog, the larger libraries have stepped up their lending sharply—one large public library's loans increasing over fourteen times since 1942.

The concept that each library holds its books in trust for all the region as a whole, once accepted, inevitably works dramatic changes in library thinking and planning. Recently the Washington Library Association, with the support of the State Library, came up with the idea that all supplementary book service to the libraries throughout the state be centered in the two largest public libraries rather than the State Library, providing that the state would finance this service. The theory back of this suggestion derived from the fact that the two public libraries in question had good book collections and adequate yearly appropriations for the purchase of new books, whereas the State Library's book collection was totally inadequate and could never be improved sufficiently with the small annual appropriation available.

This suggestion has never gone beyond the discussion stage, but there is logic in asking the stronger libraries to assume the greater responsibility in supplementing inadequate service. Actually the Seattle Public Library, one of the two libraries involved, is already edging into this larger service through its enlarged inter-library loan service

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and its contact with the King County Public Library which provides full library privileges to all county borrowers.

Much has been accomplished in the mechanics of cooperation between libraries along such lines as reciprocal borrowers' privileges, cooperative book evaluation and selection plans, centralized purchasing of books, centralized cataloging, rotation and exchange of materials, and cooperative publicity. At the same time that we list these techniques looking toward cooperation, however, we must admit that there have been serious barriers to the kind and degree of cooperation which will produce a system of libraries. These barriers have had to do largely with the opposition of officials who fear additional taxes, with the opposition of librarians and library trustees—often passive, but still very effective—because they fear loss of power or autonomy. And then, of course, there is the barrier that comes from the ignorance of the millions of citizens who either never have had library service or who have had such inferior samples as not to be impressed.

It seems possible that the implementation of the Library Services Act will have far reaching influence on the development of regional libraries, and that this "larger area service" will bring out the kind of cooperation between public libraries which will aid materially in securing coverage and insuring equality of service for all the people in those areas where matching funds have been made available and comprehensive plans have been developed.

The Library Services Act is of only five years duration, however, and already there has been trouble in securing the full appropriation authorized by the Act. It is possible that at the terminal date of the legislation we will not have made the progress which has been hoped for. With all the help possible from federal funds, much will be left unfinished when these funds are no longer available.

The planning now going forward in the forty-eight states to take advantage of the Library Services Act may be among the most lasting effects of this legislation, since this planning is likely to set the pattern for public library development for years to come. There are, however, two limitations to this planning. First, that it is concerned almost exclusively with public library development and so is not contributing to the breakdown of barriers between all types of libraries so necessary if an adequate system of libraries is to be realized. And second, because the planning is almost exclusively at the state level, there is little or no attention being given to planning on a regional or national level. Library planning for all types of libraries, and on a re-

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gional and national scale, can alone insure real library cooperation and a national system of libraries.

In this connection, the Pacific Northwest Library Association Library Development Project, now in progress with a grant from the Ford Foundation, is an example of comprehensive library planning on a regional scale. As is generally known, the P.N.L.A. is an international regional library association organized in 1909, comprising the four northwest states of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Montana, and the Canadian province of British Columbia. Recently the province of Alberta has joined this Association. P.N.L.A. has had nearly fifty years of over-all library planning and cooperation, and the Library Development Project is an ambitious attempt to realize the library potential in a comprehensive manner.

The Project is a study in detail of the different types of libraries, public, school, college, university, and special, and, in addition, has made provision for a summary-synthesis of the library complex in the region, from the viewpoint of presenting the total resources of all libraries, and the potential represented in the possible systematic utilization of this wealth.

Perhaps a short quotation from the outline of "Scope and Perspectives of the Library Development Project," prepared by Morton Kroll, director, will clarify the objectives.

The functional division which the staff decided to utilize is certainly not the only way of studying the libraries of the region. Yet there is a logical basis for such an organization. The public library, school library, university and special libraries are considered to constitute separate fields of specialization among librarians themselves. Governmentally, they stand apart. Certainly any attempt to develop pragmatically sound programs to alleviate the basic problems faced in each of these three areas would have to account for the fundamental differences which set them apart from each other.

Functional divisions, however, do not stand alone, for there are aspects and problems of libraries and librarians which cut across lines of specialization. Thus, a fourth division was established, at once a background and synthesizing category. It will attempt studies dealing with those aspects of the Pacific Northwest which constitute the natural and social field or environment in which all libraries as social mechanisms function. In this division we shall examine the total library resources, services and facilities of the region (its *library complex*, as we call it) in an effort to determine rational and feasible

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means of treating with problems common to all libraries on a regional basis.

The Project's library complex, a summary-synthesis of the total resources of all libraries in the region, can, we believe, make a unique contribution since it will make possible a systematic utilization of these combined resources and, at the same time, sort out library problems on a regional basis, indicating which can best be solved at the regional level, which can be worked out by the states themselves and, finally, what solutions can best be found in the local community.

It is entirely possible that the interest aroused by the thorough-going involvement of librarians, research workers, and others throughout the territory will continue to pay dividends long after the printed reports of the Library Development Project are filed. Such questions are being asked as "What technical library facilities are available to physicians in the rural communities in Idaho and Montana," and faculty members of the universities and colleges throughout the region are participating as, for example, the botany professor who is making a comprehensive survey of the material in the biological sciences in the region. Certainly all types of libraries are in this library development project together, and out of it should come increasing interdependence of libraries in serving the needs of the region.

The question which opened this paper, "How do the public libraries of the United States fit into the total picture of providing library resources for all our people," has been answered only inferentially at best.

When public libraries have been well supported and well administered their contribution to American culture has been many sided and has served a large segment of the population. We now have to admit, however, that this contribution has reached its maximum effectiveness in too few communities, and that today millions of Americans are without good libraries. Public libraries will never fulfill their destiny until, together with college, university, and school libraries, they provide every American, no matter how isolated, reasonably prompt access to any book, no matter how specialized.

Cooperation Among Libraries of Different Types

ROBERT T. GRAZIER

THE VARIOUS LIBRARIES in a given community differ in many of their objectives but they share responsibility for providing the general and specialized information needs of the local citizenry. The physical proximity of the libraries and the mutual business and social contacts that a professional group is likely to enjoy in a given community would seem to provide libraries with the potential for a variety of practical cooperative experiments in the building and use of library resources.

This paper describes some of the kinds of collaboration in the acquisition and use of library resources which libraries in a local area have attempted. Only those instances of cooperation among libraries of different types, i.e., academic, special, and public, are included since other papers discuss other types of cooperation. Cooperation among different types of libraries but which is unrelated to their being within the same local area has not been included in the discussion. The relationship of state libraries with school and public libraries and state university library extension services to local school and public libraries are kinds of cooperation which are not within the scope of this paper.

The majority of the examples of library cooperation described were obtained in response to a letter of inquiry sent to thirty-three metropolitan libraries, including seventeen public libraries and sixteen university libraries. The areas selected are not a scientific sample although an effort was made to get information from all sections of the country. Libraries in larger metropolitan areas were chosen on the assumption that cities having a variety of types of libraries were likely to have experimented more with cooperative activities than smaller communities. This assumption may be questioned, and there may be some kinds of local cooperation that are not represented by this group of libraries.

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The original inquiry was directed to only one library in the community. Later inquiries were made of libraries cited by the original respondents as having pertinent data. Librarians were asked to describe and evaluate any cooperative projects in which they had engaged in their area or with which they were familiar. Twenty-nine librarians responded and their information furnished the data for this survey. These data are summarized in the following pages according to the type of cooperative activity, the administrative machinery used, and the problems encountered in planning and operation.

The exchange of information about holdings and acquisitions is one of the more common examples of local cooperation. Methods of exchange range from union catalogs to telephone calls. Libraries in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Houston, Baltimore, St. Louis, and Kansas City reported past or present efforts at some form of union catalog, the most ambitious being the Philadelphia Union Library Catalogue, set up between 1935 and 1939, which formed the nucleus of the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center. Although this catalog has gone beyond that of a local area project, it began as a joint effort by local libraries. In 1942, the Detroit Public Library, the Wayne State University Library, and the University of Detroit Library joined with the "outstate" libraries—the University of Michigan, Michigan State University, and the Michigan State Library—to set up a union catalog, with copies of the proposed catalog to be located at the Detroit Public Library and the University of Michigan. The participants abandoned the catalog in 1949, however, because of the cost of maintenance, the prospect of the National Union Catalog, and the relatively infrequent use in light of the expense. These cases are cited because they represent an important kind of cooperation among libraries in a local area. The union catalog as a venture in library cooperation is treated more fully in another paper.

After World War II, the libraries in the Twin City area of St. Paul and Minneapolis set up a union catalog of selective current acquisitions. The University of Minnesota housed the catalog and bore the cost of maintenance. The cooperating libraries discontinued the project in 1953 because they decided that its use did not justify its cost. The libraries saw no prospect of being able to finance the inclusion of back holdings, and telephone communications became cheaper with the installation of non-toll service between the two cities.

Several libraries reported maintaining catalogs of other libraries' holdings in a particular subject. The Enoch Pratt Free Library in

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Baltimore maintains a union catalog of art books in four Baltimore libraries—Goucher College, the Baltimore Museum of Art, the Walters Art Gallery, and the Peabody Institute. Originally nine libraries in the area cooperated in this project, but five have dropped out. Enoch Pratt also includes cards in its catalog for all materials which have been added to Peabody Institute since the publication of its printed catalogs in 1882 and 1905. The Kansas City Public Library gets author cards for monographs in the Linda Hall Library of Science and Technology for its Department of Business and Technology. It duplicates these cards as well as cards on special subjects from such libraries as the University of Kansas Medical Library and the Air Force Academy Library for the Bibliographical Center at Denver. In Omaha, a joint committee was set up in the early fifties to begin work on the *Omaha Union Catalog of Chemistry Material* but the project folded in 1955.

In addition to union catalogs, some libraries have tried to enlarge access to community resources by exchanging catalog cards. Some such exchanges have been limited to certain subjects while others have included all current acquisitions. The University of Pittsburgh Library and the Carnegie Institute of Technology Library agreed in 1948 to exchange cards for all new accessions, with the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh participating for those fields in which it purchased heavily. The exchange, however, broke down under the weight of filing costs although Carnegie Institute still gets cards for certain subjects from the University of Pittsburgh. Since 1951 the Art and Architecture Library of Washington University in St. Louis has exchanged cards with the St. Louis City Art Museum. In 1952, four Houston libraries—Rice Institute, Houston Public Library, the University of Houston, and Texas Southwestern University—experimented with exchanging cards for current imprints but later decided that the operation took more time and money than the libraries could afford. Related, though not identical efforts would include the Detroit Public Library's granting Wayne the privilege of duplicating the cards for the labor collection the Detroit Public purchased from John Crerar. Minneapolis reported that the Minnesota Historical Society and the Archives Division of the University of Minnesota Library freely exchange information about the contents of their respective collections so that scholars will know what they may expect to find in either collection.

Libraries in a number of areas have compiled union lists of serials to disseminate information about holdings. Such guides are invaluable for interlibrary loan purposes and useful for eliminating duplication

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of expensive journal holdings. Local chapters of the Special Libraries Association have sponsored these union lists in Detroit, Kansas City, Milwaukee, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh. Sometimes, as in the case of Detroit, the project was co-sponsored by the public library. In Pittsburgh, the University of Pittsburgh Library, the Carnegie Institute of Technology Library, and the Carnegie Library took over the task of completing the union list from the Special Libraries chapter. In both Pittsburgh and Milwaukee, the "list" is in card form and housed in the public library. The *Worcester Union List of Serials* (1949, new edition, 1957) stemmed from the joint efforts of some fourteen special, college, public, and private libraries in the area. Seven libraries, five academic and two public, in the Dallas-Fort Worth area cooperated to publish the *North Texas Union List of Serials* (1944; supplement, 1945; new edition, 1948). More limited in scope are lists such as *A Union List of Serials in the Washington University Libraries and in the Henry Shaw Botanical Garden Library and the Library of the Monsanto Chemical Company*.

Exchanging information about holdings has been paralleled, possibly less extensively and certainly less systematically, by the pooling of information about new and proposed acquisitions. Libraries have tried to minimize duplication of expensive and little used materials through local cooperation. Several years ago, the Enoch Pratt Free Library and the libraries of Johns Hopkins University, the Peabody Institute, Goucher College, and the Walters Art Gallery attempted to set up procedures for cooperative book selection for expensive and specialized works. The libraries worked out routines for checking with other libraries about "intent to purchase" such items. The plan, according to one participant, was not notably successful and is no longer in operation except in rare and unusual cases. Four Houston libraries have worked out a form whereby the purchasing library automatically notifies the other libraries of its intention to buy a given item. The fairly recent increase of large-scale microtext publishing projects has stimulated libraries in several areas to pool acquisition information. Washington University and the St. Louis Public Library exchange detailed information about the contents of the various microtext projects which each subscribes to. Detroit reports a similar exchange between Detroit Public Library and Wayne State University, as does the University of Utah with the Salt Lake City Public Library. The Worcester, Massachusetts, correspondent wrote that most libraries in that area check with each other before purchasing important and expensive

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publications. Wayne State University and the Detroit Public Library occasionally review their periodical subscription lists in order to eliminate unnecessary duplication, and each library forwards to the other records of new subscriptions.

Librarians have long recognized that one of the basic elements in any cooperative planning for enlargement of resources on a local or national scale is agreement as to who will collect what. The more discrete the areas of acquisition, the greater the opportunity for increasing the total resources of the community. Large public libraries with diverse clientele and metropolitan universities with a wide variety of instructional and research programs to support have found defining areas of specialization to be a thorny problem.

One of the earliest general agreements about subject specialization was drawn up by the Chicago Public Library, the John Crerar Library, and the Newberry Library in 1896. Although brief and stated in general terms with no formal procedures established for its implementation, it has doubtlessly been effective in determining the characteristics of these collections and has helped to give Chicago stronger resources than it would have had without it. Boston, rich in libraries, reported no formal cooperative arrangements for specialized acquisitions, but depends rather "on unwritten relationships in which common sense has been allowed a dominant role." Informal consultations frequently take place where the purchase price is fifty dollars or more.

In Baltimore, seven institutions through correspondence and conferences have worked out plans for acquisition of Maryland and Baltimore material. For example, Enoch Pratt Free Library assumes no responsibility for historical manuscripts or the building up of a genealogical collection, leaving these fields to the Maryland Historical Society and, in the case of archives, to the Maryland Hall of Records. Parenthetically, genealogy seems to be one field in which agreement for responsibility is easily reached! New Orleans, Syracuse, Salt Lake City, Seattle, and Detroit all report this as a field where local responsibility is unquestioned. Some twenty years ago, the Detroit Public Library and Wayne State University delineated, in rather vague terms, areas of specialization. Recently, each library drew up a detailed document reaffirming and, in some cases, enlarging the earlier "understanding." The reports annotated present strengths and weaknesses in order to provide a clearer guide for future acquisitions.

Local agreements dividing responsibility for types of material or for major publication projects seem more easily arrived at. Numerous

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correspondents cited divisions of responsibility for certain large-scale microtext publications. For example, the Cleveland Public Library subscribes to the Evans microprint project while Western Reserve is taking the microfilm edition of titles in the *Short-Title Catalog*. The Detroit Public Library, the University of Detroit, and Wayne State University take care to avoid duplicating subscriptions to these major publishing projects. In St. Louis, Washington University, the St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis University, and Concordia Seminary have informal agreements with respect to subscribing to the major scholarly micro-reproduction projects. State and local newspapers, maps, and government documents are types of material for which libraries in local areas have frequently agreed to allocate the responsibility for collection and preservation.

Several respondents described informal arrangements for the exchange and disposal of duplicates or unwanted materials. Such practice may be more widespread than this brief survey indicates since some librarians may not have considered it important enough to mention. The most highly organized "exchange and disposal" program reported is the project sponsored by the Milwaukee Public Library and the local Special Libraries chapter. Member libraries send all duplicate or unwanted periodicals to the public library which selects items to add to its collection, to replace mutilated issues, or acts as an exchange center for filling the needs of other local libraries. What is left is sold to magazine dealers or disposed of as waste paper. The proceeds of the sales are divided evenly between the public library and the local Special Libraries chapter. The project is reported as successful not only from the standpoint of improving local periodical collections but also in providing financial support for other projects of the Special Libraries chapter.

An informal arrangement involving the St. Louis Public Library, Concordia Seminary Library, and Washington University Library makes duplicate books in any one of the three libraries available to the other two before they are disposed of through other channels. Worcester libraries check their discards as to "uniqueness" and send the book to the appropriate library if it is the last copy in the area. The Detroit Public Library and the Wayne State University Library regularly donate to one another materials that are pertinent to their collection.

The transfer of materials from one library to another to increase their usefulness is one of the earliest examples of library cooperation

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among different types of libraries. The transfer in some instances has been the direct result of formal agreements for specialization in acquisition. The 1896 cooperative acquisitions agreement among the John Crerar, the Newberry, and the Chicago Public Libraries resulted in Newberry's selling to Crerar at a modest figure its collections in science and technology and later, the transfer of its excellent medical library. In Boston, the Public Library has twice transferred materials to newly formed libraries that were logical repositories for them—in the latter decades of the nineteenth century its medical material to the Boston Medical Library and in the 1920's much of its material in the field of business history to the Harvard Business Library, then in its formative stage.

More recently, the University of Pittsburgh, the Carnegie Institute of Technology, and the Carnegie Library as a part of their program of coordination report combining incomplete sets of periodicals in the library in which they will have the greatest use. Similar exchanges of periodicals were also reported between the Kansas City Public Library and the Linda Hall Library and between the Detroit Public Library and Wayne State University Library. In Philadelphia, the Academy of Natural Sciences transferred appropriate materials to the American Philosophical Society, and the Rare Book Department of the University of Pennsylvania gave its collection of horology to Franklin Institute. The Archival Division of the University of Minnesota Library and the Minnesota Historical Society occasionally transfer items to strengthen their respective holdings.

Cooperation among libraries in building community library resources must be supplemented by devices for making these resources available to the community. Interlibrary loan has been a time-honored procedure for doing this. Libraries in some areas have liberalized their loan procedures to increase availability of materials. Enoch Pratt Free Library has worked out an arrangement whereby patrons may borrow Peabody materials listed in Pratt's catalog through interlibrary loan. (Since Peabody is a reference library only, such arrangements are necessary for users to have loan privileges for Peabody material.) In 1951, the Special Libraries Council of Philadelphia devised an interlibrary loan code to conform with the local practices of a group of college and university libraries. As a corollary to the cooperative acquisition agreement cited earlier, the Pittsburgh libraries instituted a more liberal policy of interlibrary loans. Interlibrary loan service among three libraries in Detroit—the Detroit Public, the University of De-

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troit, and Wayne State University—has been speeded up by the University of Detroit's supplying a pick-up and delivery service for these loans. Both Detroit Public and Wayne issue "company cards" to special librarians or, in some cases, to individuals which permits direct borrowing and reduces the red-tape of interlibrary loans. Syracuse reports reciprocal use of materials in the University and special libraries by staff members and faculty.

The problem of increasing the accessibility of research and reference collections has been solved in several metropolitan areas by contractual agreements between the public library and professional or industrial organizations that need to maintain libraries for their membership. In Denver, under a long-standing agreement with the Colorado State Board of Examiners for Professional Engineers and Land Surveyors and the Colorado State Board of Examiners for Architects, the Public Library receives annually from each group substantial sums for research materials in their field of specialization. When the contracts were drawn, both organizations transferred their holdings to the Denver Public Library where they are available for public use. The agreements have resulted in the development of strong collections in both fields.

The Boeing Airplane Company in Seattle through a contractual arrangement with the Seattle Public Library has the benefit of a fine collection in the field of aeronautics administered by the Public Library but partially subsidized by the Boeing Company. The Company also maintains a special library of its own. In Kansas City, the Linda Hall Library has accepted responsibility for the science library resources needed by the University of Kansas City. Contractual arrangements such as those cited here not only increase the accessibility of research collections but also eliminate unnecessary duplication of specialized material.

Many of the cooperative projects and activities carried on by libraries have been conducted with a minimum of administrative machinery. Generally speaking, local cooperation is primarily managed by an *ad hoc* committee or through informal contact of librarians in the area—a technique which ease and frequency of communication make feasible. "Friendly understanding" rather than formal agreements support many types of local cooperation.

Such machinery as has been employed usually consists of joint committees responsible for planning and carrying out specific projects and in only a few cases have more elaborate techniques been used.

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For its *Union List of Periodicals* the cooperating Pittsburgh libraries have a governing committee made up of the directors of the three libraries and an operating committee composed of staff members and several special librarians. The operating committee is responsible for developing technical procedures for the project. In 1941, Philadelphia librarians formed the Philadelphia Metropolitan Library Council to provide a channel of voluntary cooperation for the libraries in the area. The Council set up subcommittees to be responsible for developing plans for cooperation in certain areas, including specialization in libraries, cooperative routines, cooperative cataloging, storage of little-used materials, and privileges for users. Each committee explored ways and means of increasing cooperation in its area and several reported on possible plans of action, but tangible results were minimal. The Council itself dissolved in 1950.

Several reports indicate that cooperative projects were the result of the deliberations of a committee formulated for the express purpose of exploring possible methods for cooperation. Pittsburgh's cooperative projects are the outgrowth of a series of meetings by the directors of the three libraries for the purpose of coordinating library services and acquisitions. In Detroit, representatives from the Public Library and Wayne State University Library meet regularly to consider ways to improve service and resources through cooperation.

Librarians were cautious in estimating success or failure of local cooperation. Some thought certain projects were working well; others expressed disappointment with what they deemed minor achievements. With such a small sample of enterprises, no generalizations can be drawn from successes or failures. Among the major projects mentioned, union catalogs and large-scale exchanges of information about holdings have had a fairly high mortality rate. Such efforts in Pittsburgh, Detroit, Minneapolis-St. Paul, and Houston, for example, were begun but are now discontinued. On the other hand, union lists of serials were usually successfully completed and frequently brought up to date with supplements or new editions. Some libraries have worked out relatively satisfactory allocations of subject specialization; others have accomplished little or nothing in this area. Certain cooperative acquisition programs have succeeded; others have failed or, at best, are working indifferently. Generally speaking, both subject specialization and cooperative acquisition have worked better in cases where the libraries have readily definable clientele or traditional interests, or where types of material offer easily defined lines of demarca-

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tion. Projects which have been successful in one area have failed in another and, doubtless, local conditions and enthusiasms can account for the mixed results of similar projects.

The comments of librarians in explaining their failures underscore some of the handicaps and problems of cooperation among different kinds of libraries in a local area. Each library serves a particular clientele, one whose services and access to material no library desires to restrict by inter-institutional agreements. Libraries are reluctant to turn over responsibility for acquisitions to another library unless they know their patrons will have easy access to the material. One correspondent cited refusal to participate in a cooperative project because it would interfere with service to regular patrons. Librarians must convince their readers that limited or deferred access is justified by increased resources or face up to the problem of new clienteles. A faculty member who enjoys special loan privileges from his university library will want the same privileges from the public library for the same material. The public library user will expect service and loan privileges from academic and special libraries. Cooperative acquisition and subject specialization ought to be accompanied by direct access to materials. One librarian recognized this and wrote *apropos* of a cooperative acquisitions venture that certain categories of readers would have access to materials regardless of what library they might be in.

Libraries cannot always decide what fields they may concentrate in. Their collections and acquisition policies are predetermined by their constituencies. Academic libraries and special libraries must buy what their institutional programs require, duplication or no duplication. Consequently, they are limited in the scope of agreements they can make about fields of specialization. Furthermore, libraries are not autonomous agencies and cannot easily commit themselves to joint action involving commitments apparently beyond the scope of their primary responsibility. As institutions under state, municipal, private, and church control, they are limited to the kinds of cooperative programs they may support. These restrictions can be overcome, but some cooperative projects have foundered because of such complications.

In addition to these "built-in" problems of library cooperation, certain cooperative efforts have suffered other handicaps which lessened chances for success. Some have lacked the administrative organization necessary for careful planning and supervision of the project. They

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placed undue reliance upon voluntary personnel and lacked financial support. Too often one of the larger libraries bore the brunt of the program and when it withdrew its support, the project collapsed. In some cases, the projects were not of sufficient importance or interest to all participants. Some were born from the enthusiasms or needs of one or two libraries who, for a short time, succeeded in convincing their sister institutions that the job ought to be done. Sooner or later some of the participants realized how little they had to gain from it and needed constant prodding to do their part. Libraries differ in the state of their development and some, doubtless, regard certain types of cooperation as restricting their growth and importance. On the other hand, some librarians expressed the opinion that the larger libraries are disinclined to certain joint enterprises since they have less to gain.

Some efforts failed because their success depended upon conditions which did not exist. For example, certain kinds of cooperative acquisition programs presupposed that the participants had delineated areas of subject specialization. Where these were ill-defined, cooperative acquisition stood little chance of success. Occasionally enterprises failed because one or more libraries defaulted in their contribution. The inability to enforce agreements is always a theoretical handicap in voluntary action, and library cooperation is no exception.

Despite the well-known problems and obstacles, the admitted failures and frustrations, different kinds of libraries have succeeded in many kinds of cooperation. Geographical proximity has not only been a goad to such efforts but has enabled much to be done with a minimum of organization. Experience indicates, however, that libraries should carefully consider what might be basic elements of a successful project. Any project should benefit all cooperating libraries, and the benefit should be tangible enough so that each library can identify what it is gaining, or what it would not have to do that it is now doing. The operation of the project should be assigned to a unit or individual whose sole responsibility and function is to see that the job gets done. Cooperation is a full-time job and libraries risk its success when they diffuse it among staffs already busy with other duties. The project should have adequate financing by participating libraries who could charge the assessment to a tangible service or function. Finally, libraries should carefully examine the projects to make sure they really are local in scope and are not isolated fragments of a task which might better be done on a regional or state-wide basis.

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INSTITUTIONS CONTRIBUTING INFORMATION

Atlanta, Georgia Institute of Technology Library; Baltimore, Enoch Pratt Free Library; Boston, Boston Public Library and Boston University Libraries; Brooklyn, Brooklyn College Library; Buffalo, University of Buffalo Library; Chicago, Chicago Public Library; Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati Library; Cleveland, Cleveland Public Library; Dallas, Southern Methodist University Library; Denver, Denver Public Library and the Bibliographical Center for Research; Houston, University of Houston Library; Kansas City, Kansas City Public Library; Los Angeles, Los Angeles Public Library; Louisville, Louisville Free Public Library; Miami, University of Miami Library; Milwaukee, Milwaukee Public Library; Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Library; Nashville, Joint University Libraries; New Orleans, New Orleans Public Library; Omaha, Omaha Public Library; Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Library and the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center; Pittsburgh, Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh; Portland, Library Association of Portland; Providence, Providence Public Library; Richmond, Richmond Public Library; Rochester, University of Rochester Library; St. Louis, Washington University Libraries; Salt Lake City, University of Utah Library; San Francisco, San Francisco Public Library; Seattle, University of Washington Library; Syracuse, Syracuse University Library; Washington, D.C., Public Library of the District of Columbia; and Worcester, Clark University Library.

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A REVIEW OF THE BIBLIOGRAPHY of library cooperation does not disclose much formal discussion of "cooperation" among special libraries, in comparison with some other types of libraries; nor does a page by page perusal of the American periodicals in the special library field. The evidences of cooperation must, for the most part, be sought within the accounts of association activities. The climate for cooperation in special library associations is created by the fact that membership is not large and the associations can act as closely knit groups of professional librarians. This is especially true of the semi-autonomous divisions of the Special Libraries Association, and of the Medical Library Association, the Music Library Association, the American Association of Law Libraries and others. The spirit of these special organizations is well described by the words of Katharine Kinder, the retiring president of S.L.A., "It's Every Member's Business."¹

R. L. Collison, British librarian, spoke on the subject, "Aspects of Cooperation in University and Special Libraries in the United States of America," at the annual conference of the Library Association in Llandudno on April 29, 1953. In a review of this address in *Special Libraries*, there are quoted the following paragraphs which illustrate the normality of cooperation:

Mr. Collison states: "The extent, however, to which practical cooperation between university and special libraries has already advanced in the United States is not generally realized in Britain . . . Moreover, much of the development in this field has been gradual and instinctive: so much so, that even many American librarians appear to be unaware of their full implications, or of the general pattern which is more easily apparent to the foreign observer."

"In this day-to-day mutual assistance routine which appears to be a feature of most areas containing both university and special libraries,"

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continues Mr. Collison, "there is no doubt that it is greatly stimulated by a community of interests which transcends whatever official barriers may exist. And this community of interest is stimulated in turn by the existence of local branches of national subject-group associations of libraries . . . Particularly active in this field is the Special Libraries Association which operates many subject groups . . ."²

The various special library associations are associated with each other in a variety of ways, especially through the activities of the Council of National Library Associations. Such groups as the C.N.L.A.'s Joint Committee on Education for Librarianship and the Sub-Committee on Education for Special Librarianship, have sponsored special studies, panel discussions, and other activities which have recently brought to bear serious review of this phase of professional librarianship. And the leadership has been followed by such local efforts as a panel discussion on training for special librarians, jointly sponsored in Philadelphia by the Science-Technology group of S.L.A. and the Philadelphia regional group of the Medical Library Association.

Another example of inter-association activity is cooperation with the U. S. Book Exchange. And still another, of a different sort, is the cooperative work done by the Committee on Periodicals and Publications of the Medical Library Association and the Publishing Division of the Special Libraries Association in notifying periodical publishers of practices that make difficult the work of libraries in handling periodicals.

Another example of inter-association cooperation lies in the field of international relations. The 1956 report of the International Relations Committee of S.L.A. relates the following:

"The committee, in cooperation with the International Relations Board of the American Library Association and with the Department of State's International Educational Exchange Service, has initiated a project whereby qualified foreign librarians may work for 11 months as visiting members of American libraries. The participating American libraries are providing maintenance allowances and opportunities to do professional library work, while the Department of State is responsible for international travel and for a month of travel in the United States. The Washington Committee, representing the International Relations Committees of S.L.A. and of A.L.A. and of the Department of State, has received requests for visiting foreign staff members from a number of American libraries. It is expected that one or two foreign librarians will be in the United States under this

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jointly sponsored project by the late summer of 1956 with a few additional foreign librarians arriving early in 1957.⁸

Evidence of the active cooperation between special libraries can be found summarized in the annual reports of the Division Relations Committee of S.L.A. For example, the report for 1956⁴ of the Committee Chairman, Lorraine Ciboch, referred to no fewer than thirty-five Division projects contemplated or in progress, most of which could be fully successful only with the cooperation of many libraries. These appeared under such headings as "Active Projects," "Projects Planned or Under Consideration," "Cooperation With Other Groups," and "Bulletins." A selection of these were:

Guide to Cartographical Research, as a selective, annotated bibliography of basic reference materials in cartography—Geography and Map Division.

"Foreign Alloy Data, a compilation of recent data and references on foreign alloys, has been published with the recent issue of *Metals Division News*. At present 11 contributors are scanning 29 publications."—Metals Division.

"The duplicate exchange project continues each year."—Science-Technology Division, Petroleum Section.

"The Division has a representative on the Interassociation Hospital Libraries Committee. Six projects have been discussed and recommendations have been made."—Hospital Division.

"Five members of the Division have served on the committee of the Library of Congress to prepare the draft of *Rules for Cataloging Prints and Photographs*."—Picture Division.

The projects often result in publications of important reference value in many libraries. A type of publication especially well represented is the directory of resources in special libraries. The most ambitious of such publishing ventures was the four volume *Special Libraries Resources* published between 1941 and 1947. A project of this magnitude would have been impossible without the cooperation of the libraries of the United States and Canada—not only special libraries but also public, college and university libraries containing special subject collections of research value. Directories of lesser proportions are published locally by many S.L.A. Chapters. Some of these directories are:

Directory of Special Libraries in Boston, Vicinity and Member Libraries in New England. (S.L.A. Boston Chapter, 5th ed., 1948)

Directory of Libraries and Information Sources in the Philadelphia

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Area. (Special Libraries Council of Philadelphia and Vicinity, 5th ed., 1951)

Directory of Special Libraries in the Southeast. (South Eastern Library Association, Special Libraries Committee, 1953)

Directory of Special Libraries in Montreal. (S.L.A. Montreal Chapter, 1955)

Special Libraries Directory of Greater New York. (S.L.A. New York Chapter, 7th ed., 1956)

One of the general professional services of S.L.A. is the loan collection of classification systems and subject heading lists, which is maintained in Cleveland for the Association by the School of Library Science of Western Reserve University.⁵ Many of these special systems have resulted from group effort, for example, the *A.S.M.-S.L.A. Classification for Metallurgical Literature* developed by a joint committee of S.L.A. and the American Society of Metals.

One of the most ambitious, cooperative programs undertaken by the S.L.A. was the organization of a loan collection of translations from foreign scientific and technical literature. After several years experimentation with voluntary management of this project, the Association entered into a contract with the John Crerar Library of Chicago to develop, maintain, and service a collection of translations.

From an initial deposit of 932 translations from languages other than Russian, deposited in Crerar Library in July, 1953, the project has developed rapidly. Under guidance of a committee of the Association, the S.L.A. Translation Center has gained the cooperation of a large number of companies, government agencies, and other organizations in depositing translations with permission to lend or copy. In 1956, the S.L.A. Translation Center was able to develop a greatly expanded program with grants to the Association from the National Science Foundation and the National Institutes of Health.

By arrangement between the National Science Foundation, the Library of Congress, and the Special Libraries Association, a collection of more than 4,600 translations from Russian scientific and technical literature was transferred in January, 1957, from the Library of Congress to the S.L.A. Center at Crerar Library. By this action, there was created one national center for scientific and technical translations from all languages which may be drawn upon by research agencies in all parts of the country. By June, 1957, the collection had grown

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to well over 16,000 translations with indications of growth at the rate of some 5,000 or more translations per year.

From the beginning it was recognized that an important function of the center would be to report its holdings and current acquisitions. In October, 1953, the first *List of Translations* was issued, with a supplement appearing in September, 1954. In 1955, the Center began publication of *Translation Monthly* to issue current reports of translations available in the Center. The first issue appeared in October, 1955, as a combined issue for January-October, with monthly issues following on the fifth of each month. Initially, this was an eight-page list arranged by author, with semi-annual and annual author indexes. In January, 1957, with the transfer of the Russian translations from the Library of Congress, *Translation Monthly* was expanded to thirty-six pages each month, classified in broad subject groups and including translations from all languages represented in the collection. The journal was expanded again in April, 1957, to fifty-six page issues. Its acceptance has been demonstrated by the continued deposit of translations from many sources and by a gradual increase in the number of copies distributed each month to more than one thousand subscribers.

The S.L.A. Translation Center is evidence of the potential success of a well conceived program for cooperation among special libraries and the research community which depends upon them for service.

As might be expected, there is a strong tendency for cooperative programs among special libraries to revolve within the circles of special subject field interests. Several examples of such cooperation are described below.

The potentialities of cooperation between special libraries are illustrated by W. A. Southern in a program for cooperation between pharmaceutical libraries.⁶ Following an analysis of a large number of services offered by pharmaceutical libraries as a group, he lists twenty-one areas in which interlibrary cooperation should be possible. A few of these are: "A classification system for pharmaceutical libraries . . .," "Cooperative periodical indexing and abstracting service . . .," "System for more direct exchange of duplicate materials," "Index to *Drug Topics* and *Drug Trade News*," "Index to *Modern Drug Encyclopedia* by chief chemical ingredient," and "A study of the value of microcard and microfilm copies of periodicals in pharmaceutical libraries . . ." "Through inter-library cooperation," he concludes, "we can save ourselves duplicating much work which most pharmaceutical

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libraries are now doing on an individual basis. As a result we will be able to offer our companies more and better services with no increase in staff and no increase in library budget."

That pharmaceutical libraries take seriously this admonition to cooperate, one can see by turning to the following publications, *Unlisted Drugs* or the *Union List of Periodicals in Pharmaceutical Libraries*. *Unlisted Drugs*, published monthly since 1949 is a cooperative enterprise of a number of pharmaceutical libraries under sponsorship of the Pharmaceutical Section, Science-Technology Division, of the Special Libraries Association. *Union List of Periodicals in Pharmaceutical Libraries*, started in 1952, contains the holdings of twenty-five pharmaceutical libraries, recording locations of approximately 1,500 periodicals of pharmaceutical interest.

In a paper on "The Future of the Law Library,"⁷ R. W. Wienpahl opens his concluding paragraph with the following: "In summation, it should be pointed out that the future of all types of libraries lies in cooperative measures, both national and international, in order to reduce operating expenses and in microeditions, to reduce the incredible storage problems, not only of the future but of the present as well." This follows a proposal that the American Association of Law Libraries sponsor a project for cooperative acquisition of foreign legal periodicals and a plan to reproduce them in microeditions for the member libraries. This demonstrates that law librarians, in common with other special library groups, are currently alert to the potentialities of cooperative effort in the improvement of collections and services.

An example of a cooperative project, firmly established and functioning, is the union catalog of law libraries in Chicago. Initiated about 1940 it has grown to approximately 175,000 cards, recording holdings of the libraries in the Chicago Bar Association, the Chicago Law Institute, and the law schools at the University of Chicago and Northwestern University, plus some legal holdings in other Chicago libraries. In this instance, cooperation is not limited to maintenance of a union catalog. The librarians of the four law libraries meet frequently to discuss acquisitions policy. A *Guide to the Legal Collections in Chicago*, published by Northwestern University School of Law in 1955, is being examined to identify gaps in the law collections and to work out distribution of responsibility for filling these gaps.

In a survey of law libraries,⁸ W. R. Roalfe devotes two chapters to "Cooperation Between Libraries," and "Cooperation Through Or-

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ganized Groups." He reports that "Eighty-eight out of a total of 160 libraries reported that they do not cooperate with other libraries in any way." The above example, therefore, cannot be considered typical, and this is borne out by the content of the two chapters. On the other hand, a number of forms of cooperation between law libraries and other organizations are described. The forms of cooperation most commonly practiced are interlibrary lending and reciprocal use of collections.

The American Association of Law Libraries has several special committees on cooperation with other associations and agencies. Roalfe points the way to much wider cooperation in law libraries in a recent paper on: "Relations of the American Association of Law Libraries With Other Professional Organizations,"⁹ and refers to adoption by the executive board of A.A.L.L. of a recommendation by a special policy committee that the Association sponsor a study of the role of the Association in development of law libraries.

A group of theological libraries in the Boston area organized a program of cooperation in 1948 which was designed to include a variety of activities: exchange of duplicates, some division of fields of responsibility in acquisitions and free interlibrary loan and telephone reference service. In an account of this program there appears one statement which can be said to characterize much of the cooperation between special libraries. "A good deal of pressure is relieved from the smaller seminary libraries through free loan to students by all libraries in the area. Bibliographic services and aid in cataloging problems are given by the larger to the smaller libraries, but this is almost a matter of course and will be found in any metropolitan area, association or no association."¹⁰

The duplicate exchange program of the Medical Library Association is a cooperative effort of long standing. Currently, it continues very actively. According to the report of its manager for 1955,¹¹ 153 libraries reported statistics of 111,615 single items and 5,597 bound volumes shipped. Some 205 lists of duplicates had been published at the time of the report.

Cooperative cataloging has received little attention among special libraries; the only formal discussion of the subject in recent years was a brief account of an experiment in this field conducted by the medical libraries at Columbia and Yale Universities and the University of California at Los Angeles. Single copies of every medical unit card were sent by each of the cooperating libraries to the other two. Each

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library found that it was able to utilize the cataloging of the others and it was anticipated that the project would continue to be advantageous.¹²

An example of a union catalog is to be found in the medical union catalog maintained at the John Crerar Library in Chicago. Originally sponsored by the Institute of Medicine of Chicago, this catalog contains a record of the holdings of the five medical school libraries in Chicago. Cooperating libraries send their catalog cards to Crerar Library, which maintains the catalog and answers daily inquiries on the location of titles. The union catalog is located adjacent to the public catalog in the Medical Department of Crerar Library, so the holdings of this library are not filed in it. The cooperating libraries are located in the medical schools of the University of Chicago, Northwestern University, University of Illinois, Loyola University, and Chicago Medical College.

It is evident from many notes and minutes of meetings of special librarians that a strong spirit of cooperation is abroad, but much, if not most, cooperation is of incidental character. This is illustrated by statements made by a panel of law librarians at the Golden Jubilee Meeting of the American Association of Law Libraries. J. W. Heckel stated that, "The regional chapters are a means of cooperation among public law libraries and practitioners' libraries. Ideas and information on resources and gadgets are exchanged at meetings." Commenting on cooperation between businesses, Beatrice S. McDermott said:

Most of us in the downtown section of New York City are on a first-name-calling relationship and we are pretty familiar with the special collections of the other firm libraries. Our firm lawyers use the facilities of libraries of other firms. With us, a wonderful spirit of helpfulness exists which can only be explained by a mutual understanding among us of the exigency of every situation the firm librarian must meet. . . .

We borrow not only among ourselves but from law school, government, and institutional law libraries; yes, even oil company, newspaper, chamber of commerce, financial, medical, railroad, accounting, and engineering libraries are besieged with requests from the firm library. Thus, we are continually putting to the test, and probably at times straining to the limit, the cooperative spirit of other libraries.¹³

These quotations could be turned to a description of the informal nature of cooperation among special libraries of all types. But here

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and there, as illustrated by this paper, there are some very substantial cooperative programs supported by special librarians.

Finally, and in a lighter vein, it may be pointed out that special librarians are ready to cooperate in activities that are both useful and fun. Two chapters of S.L.A. have "cooperated" with Shirley Booth, leading lady of *The Desk Set*, who plays the dramatic role of a special librarian. Miss Booth was a guest of honor at two chapter parties which resulted in good public relations for both special libraries and the play.

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Library Cooperation in Great Britain

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THE ORGANIZATION OF LIBRARY COOPERATION

in Great Britain probably represents the most notable achievement on the part of British librarians during the past quarter of a century. R. T. Esterquest's penetrating study of the situation, as it was four years ago, did not fail to note weaknesses and omissions, but at the same time reminded us that the National Central Library and Regional Library Bureaux, covering the whole of Great Britain, provide a network of national interlending that is more highly organized than any similar system anywhere in the world. Esterquest was too kind when he reported that "In theory, any resident of Great Britain can obtain any book needed for a reasonably serious purpose on loan through the system as long as the book exists in a lending library somewhere in the British Isles" (and had he included non-book material he would have been positively misleading), but he came quite close to an accurate appraisal of the system. Interlending has indeed become such a prominent feature of the British library scene that until recently most British librarians tended to regard "interlending" and "cooperation" as synonymous terms. Luxmoore Newcombe's *Library Cooperation in the British Isles*, published in 1937, dealt with little else than the system of interlending. Countless articles in periodicals have used the term in this narrow and somewhat misleading sense. This has a real significance, not perhaps readily apparent to a visitor from abroad, and some attempt to explain it may provide a useful clue to an understanding of past development and current problems.

The system of national interlending, based on the National Central Library and the Regional Library Bureaux, was created during the fifteen years from 1930 to 1945. It was in 1945 that the latest of the Bureaux, that for Scotland, was inaugurated (there were certain

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legal difficulties in the way of organized interlending between municipal libraries in Scotland, which were not removed until the passing of the Public Libraries Act of 1955). As late as 1924 J. M. Mitchell had reported to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust that "In general it is fair to say that, while individual librarians in many places arrange privately for mutual loans, systematic co-operation is yet in its infancy."² This report was concerned with public libraries, but Mitchell's criticism was equally applicable to other types of libraries. Although there is evidence of discussion in professional circles of various forms of library cooperation, including subject specialization as well as interlending, from the beginning of the century, nothing had been achieved at the time of the Mitchell report.

This is not surprising in a country in which the national and older university libraries are rarely able or willing to participate in any form of cooperation, least of all interlending. A proposal to compile a union catalog of the libraries of Oxford, including the Bodleian, had been made in 1652; work was started on this, but excluding the Bodleian, in 1929!³ The public libraries, which had been provided out of purely local sources of income, were similarly parochial in their outlook. There were several legal provisions for cooperation between them, but few had attempted to take any advantage of them. Each public library, municipal or county, serving a population of more than a million or less than 5,000, operated as a self-contained unit. Most of these units were small, all were inadequately financed. It is not surprising to find that by 1924, three-quarters of a century after the passing of the first Public Libraries Act, not more than eleven per cent of the urban population were registered as users of the lending services (and in the rural areas it was very much lower). This was the situation in 1924. Yet within less than ten years the present structure of the national interlending system had been almost completed, with the previously isolationist public libraries the most active participants.

At first glance it might seem that this transformation is easily explained in that section of the *Report on Public Libraries in England and Wales*, presented by the Board of Education in 1927, which dealt with the need for cooperation between libraries.⁴ To some extent this is true, but there are one or two aspects of this decisive stage in the development of library provision in Great Britain which have received quite inadequate attention from almost all subsequent writers on the subject.

It is in the first place important to remind ourselves that the sec-

tion in the Report of 1927 concerned with library cooperation was headed "An Organised National Service." It was perhaps the greatest achievement on the part of the members of the committee responsible for the Report that they succeeded in introducing the concept of a national library service. Their greatest failure was the means by which they suggested this could be achieved. That means was to be a "national system of free co-operation," based above all else on the voluntary interlending of books between the public libraries of the country, grouped around certain regional centers, with special libraries "pooling their resources in the service of research," and a central library to act as a clearinghouse for the whole system. There was little more to it than that. This was to give the country an "organised national service." There was to be no suggestion of compulsion, no direct financial assistance from the central government, no standards of library service that could really mean anything. "Local autonomy can be left unimpaired; local responsibilities can be left on local shoulders," the Report added. And then perhaps the most striking proof of its incredible optimism: "Development in the backward areas will be best brought about by the force of example and by the pressure of public opinion." That must bring a wry smile to the face of many a backwoodsman in British librarianship today!

In 1927, however, and for some years to come a "national service" on these lines was precisely what most of the country's librarians wanted. It would mean no sacrifice of any part of their local independence, no abdication in any way of their long-established and almost divine right to select and reject library materials as they saw fit. The scheme was to be entirely voluntary, thus giving each library the power to decide its own interlending policy. Financial obligations would be insignificant, as the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the central government were to provide the bulk of the income of the National Central Library (1930) and the C.U.K.T. was in addition to give financial aid to each of the Regional Bureaux as they were established from 1929 onwards. The bureaus themselves were to be housed in one of the largest libraries in each region and many of the "hidden costs" of administering them were to be borne by the large library concerned. It was surely the hard road to a national library service which also offered many of the attractions of the primrose path! It comes as no surprise, therefore, to discover that, whatever else the national interlending service may have given us, it has not provided that "organised national service" of the 1927 report.

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Nevertheless much was accomplished within the field of national interlending and by 1937 the whole of England and Wales was covered by nine regional schemes, with the National Central Library building up a National Union Catalogue, based on the regional union catalogs, housing in addition the London Union Catalogue and the South-Eastern Regional Library Bureau, and acting as a clearing-house for the whole system and the agency for international interlending. This was an impressive achievement and at first glance it might seem that something approaching an "Organised National Service" was being created.

It must be borne in mind, however, that participation in the various regional schemes was almost entirely confined to public libraries; in two of them, London and the South-East, there was no other type of library (and this is still the position today). Few university and college libraries were prepared to participate and, although a number of special libraries were serving as "outlier libraries of the National Central Library, most of them were outside any official scheme of interlending. The majority of the universities and colleges were willing to lend to each other and as early as 1925 a Joint Standing Committee on Library Cooperation had been founded by the Association of University Teachers to organize inter-university interlending. (In 1931 the enquiry office of this scheme was transferred from Birmingham University to the National Central Library, the staff of which have continued to operate a separate interlending scheme for the universities). Some important special libraries had been encouraged to make their stocks available nationally through the Central Library for Students (the forerunner of the National Central Library) from 1922 onwards. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust played an important part by offering them small grants of money and by the end of 1936 more than 160 libraries were operating in this way as "outliers." It was still true to say, however, that on the eve of World War II Great Britain's national scheme of library interlending was very much a public library affair.

In 1942 L. R. McColvin published his *Public Library System of Great Britain*, devoting one of its most important sections to a study of library cooperation.⁵ This was the first serious attempt to appraise the national scheme of interlending that had grown up since 1929. McColvin's indictment of the state of public library provision in many parts of the country was in itself sufficient proof of the lack of a "national library service." His evaluation of the interlending service

left his readers in no doubt that in his opinion it had little to offer as a means of attaining such an objective. In other words, he considered the achievements of the 1927 Report's "national system of free co-operation" fifteen years after it had been proposed as the sovereign remedy for the ills of the British library world and he found them of little significance. Very much more than the voluntary interlending of bookstocks was needed. But even as a means of attaining more limited objectives the national interlending scheme appeared to McColvin to have grave deficiencies. It was slow, cumbersome, financially unsound, little used (in 1939 fewer than 55,000 books had been borrowed through the scheme) and, by attempting to serve all public libraries, however small and inadequate, far too comprehensive—at least as far as public libraries were concerned. The non-participation by the vast majority of the research libraries of the country was another serious handicap.

McColvin went further than this. He raised an important issue concerning the form of cooperation that the "national" scheme had taken; it was based solely on interlending. Nothing had been attempted in the field of the cooperative provision of materials, nationally or regionally, on a subject or any other basis. Participating libraries still continued to operate as completely self-contained units as far as selection and retention were concerned. For almost the first time the British librarian was told that cooperation should mean very much more than mere interlending. So it was that in the year following the McColvin Report the Library Association in its proposals for the post-war reorganization of the public library service made a specific reference to this need for specialization, as part of its recommendations on cooperation.⁶

It is indeed surprising in a country in which "library cooperation" has received so much attention and in which so many organized groups were at work, to find that nothing of note was attempted in the area of cooperative provision of materials before the late 1940's. The discussions that were to result in the Farmington Plan had started before McColvin published his report. It is perhaps of some significance that whereas in the United States it has been the larger research libraries that have led the way in developing schemes of co-operation, national and regional, in Great Britain it has been the less well endowed but more professionally conscious public library. This is still a significant factor in the situation today and it did not escape Esterquest's notice when he made his survey.⁷

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The national interlending picture was completed in 1945 by the inauguration of the Scottish Regional Library Bureau. This is now an integral part of the Scottish Central Library, which in 1954 was moved from its old home in Dunfermline to new quarters in Edinburgh. Like the National Central Library in London, it derives its income from annual grants from the central government and subscriptions from participating libraries. Its position and that of the whole scheme of interlending in Scotland was greatly strengthened by the passing of the Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1955.⁸

In 1948 the Sub-Bureau for Glamorgan and Monmouthshire and the Bureau at Aberystwyth, covering the rest of Wales, became equivalent in status and there are in reality two regional library systems in Wales, with a joint National Executive Committee to coordinate policy between them.⁹ The whole of Great Britain is, therefore, divided into eleven regions, eight for England, two for Wales, and one for Scotland.

The public libraries of London were the first to make a move in the direction of specialization of resources. Under what is called the Metropolitan Special Collections Scheme the twenty-eight metropolitan boroughs have allocated among themselves most the Dewey classes and agreed to purchase at least the more important books and periodicals in their allotted subjects, with interlending between themselves and other libraries in the country arranged through the London Union Catalogue, housed in the National Central Library. The scheme came into being in 1948, but was not officially announced to the users of the capital's public libraries until 1953. As with the Farmington Plan, every effort was made to allocate subject areas according to existing special interests, but arbitrary allocation was unavoidable in many instances. It is of particular interest, in view of subsequent developments in the field of cooperative provision, that under this scheme no attempt was made to exclude foreign, older, or non-book materials. For these reasons, the Metropolitan scheme may be regarded not merely as the pioneer venture but also the most enlightened. Cooperative storage on a subject basis was made a part of the scheme. The metropolitan public libraries cooperate also in a number of schemes designed to insure adequate coverage and storage of fiction and drama.

The London public libraries led the way, therefore, in both subject specialization and cooperative storage and before discussing later developments in other parts of the country it may be of interest to consider why this should have been so. There are two chief reasons.

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In the first place and in striking contrast to the situation in the larger provincial conurbations, there is no one public library in the metropolitan area that clearly dominates the scene—there is no Manchester or Liverpool or Birmingham. Indeed there is no large public library system in London; almost all of them are what in Great Britain would be called "medium-sized" (100,000 to 300,000 population). It follows that in any scheme of cooperation the responsibilities, financial and otherwise, are more evenly distributed than in any other regional area of a comparable population. The position is very different in Lancashire, where three of the sixty public library authorities serve one-half of the total population of approximately 5,000,000. Similar conditions are found in Scotland, the North-East, West Yorkshire, and the West Midlands.

The second circumstance favoring the development of schemes of cooperation in the London area is the close coordination between the twenty-eight metropolitan boroughs largely brought about by the existence of a Standing Joint Committee, representative of all of them. This body is advised by a number of professional groups of officials, including one for librarians. K. G. Hunt, borough librarian of Hammersmith, emphasized this aspect of cooperation in London when he wrote: "Public library co-operation in London, for many years past, has been not only co-operation between *libraries*, but co-operation between persons—co-operation between twenty-eight or so librarians who meet regularly, and are all concerned with securing the best possible library service for London as a whole."¹⁰

Other schemes of cooperative provision, usually taking the form of subject specialization, followed rapidly. The South-Eastern Region inaugurated subject specialization in 1950; the two Welsh regions started a joint scheme in 1953; the North-Western Region introduced a scheme very similar to the South-Eastern in 1954. Cooperative purchase of outstanding publications not available in the area has been started in the Northern Region; here there is no subject allocation however. The Northern Region also operates a "Joint Reserve Stock of Fiction," somewhat similar to the metropolitan fiction scheme. In the East Midlands Region a number of the larger libraries, including Nottingham University, cooperate in the provision of books in modern foreign languages (in 1956 the libraries in the North-Western Subject Specialization Scheme introduced a similar plan). A Scottish Fiction Reserve, to insure the systematic collection and preservation of the works of Scottish novelists, was introduced in 1954.

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There can be no doubt that these post-war developments in other areas of cooperation have greatly strengthened the regional resources in several parts of the country. "Regional self-sufficiency" is now spoken of as a desirable and attainable objective. Considerable pressure is being brought to bear by the National Central Library on all the regional committees to inaugurate schemes of cooperative provision, at least as far as current British publications are concerned. It has indeed been announced "that 1 January 1958 shall be the date at which the National Union Catalogue (compiled at the [National Central] Library from duplicate entries of the regional union catalogues) will cease to record British books recorded in the British National Bibliography. It is hoped that by the beginning of 1958 the regional library systems will be self-sufficient as far as current material recorded in the B.N.B. is concerned."¹¹ This decision has come as something of a bombshell to the more complacent regional committees. The National Central Library, in this as in some other matters, is being unreasonably optimistic in its hopes of all-round regional self-sufficiency in B.N.B. material by the end of 1957. To understand why this decision has been made it is necessary to go back a little way in order to examine what has become known as the Vollans Report, published in 1952.

In December, 1951, R. F. Vollans, deputy city librarian of Westminster, submitted to a "Joint Working Party of the Executive Committee of the National Central Library and the National Committee on Regional Library Co-operation" his report, entitled *Library Co-operation in Great Britain*, which had been commissioned by the Joint Working Party shortly after it was appointed in 1949. This report is the most detailed study of British library cooperation that has ever been attempted and is essential reading for anyone who wishes to study the subject in any detail. It was subsidized by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and published by the Library Association. The recommendations submitted by Vollans are too numerous and in many cases too detailed to be considered here, but of particular interest were his figures showing the somewhat staggering costs of interlending, particularly when the transaction had to go through the National Central Library to one of the other regions or an outlier library,¹² and his survey of recent developments in subject specialization and other forms of "coverage."¹³ The Vollans Report was continually discussed at meetings and conferences of all kinds throughout 1952 and 1953 and eventually in June, 1954, the

National Central Library and the National Committee on Regional Library Cooperation issued a joint set of twenty-one proposals for the future reorganization of the national interlending service.¹⁴ Almost all that has happened since has had its origin in these recommendations. Their most significant points were: a plea for much greater cooperation on the part of university and special libraries; regional self-sufficiency in current British books; up-to-date union catalogs in all regions (the Yorkshire Region has never had a union catalog and in some of the other regions the machinery has broken down); regional schemes of cooperative storage (but nowhere as yet has anything been attempted on the lines of the Midwest Inter-Library Center); the urgent necessity for better provision of periodicals (deliberately excluded from most schemes of cooperative purchase and not adequately provided in any); more liberal lending of "reference library" stocks by the larger library. The recommendations were almost certainly too conservative, but in Esterquest's words they were "to the point and possible of attainment within the not-too-distant future."¹⁵ Maybe he will be proved right, but more than three years after their publication, their attainment is still a long way off.

New problems have arisen since 1954. In the North-Western Region, the two large city libraries of Liverpool and Manchester, announced their intention towards the end of 1956 to withdraw from the regional scheme of Subject Specialization and they have since done so.¹⁶ This is the first real protest made by the larger libraries against what a number of them have come to regard as too heavy a burden (the advantageous situation in London in this respect has already been noted). Costs have been rising steeply and the annual dues now represent more than a purely nominal sum as in pre-war days. The National Central Library is anxious to develop some of its more specialized bibliographical services at the expense of the national interlending service, at least as far as the ordinary run of recent publications is concerned, and this policy is resented by many of the smaller libraries. Most of these small public libraries are in the scheme, and have been ever since the beginning over twenty years ago, not for what they can put into it but for what they can get out of it. This is the sort of thing that has rarely been uttered in the more polite professional circles. The recent action on the part of Liverpool and Manchester suggest that both the times and the manners are changing and what they have done has not gone unnoticed by the other large city libraries.

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Considerable attention has been given since the publication of the 1954 recommendations to the place of the non-public library in the scheme of things. Although more than 200 special libraries now co-operate as outlier libraries of the National Central Library and almost all the university libraries participate in their own scheme of inter-lending, there are comparatively few non-public libraries in the regional systems and even fewer in the various schemes of cooperative provision. With reservations, the National Central Library has supported Vollans in his recommendation that there should be much greater participation by non-public libraries at regional level. Little progress has been made in this direction and R. H. Hill, librarian of the National Central Library, and his deputy, S. P. L. Filon, have made it clear that this is no simple matter.¹⁷ It must be remembered that the National Central Library's system of outliers represents but a part of the contribution made by the special libraries to national cooperation. About 300 of them participate in the "supplementary loans" scheme administered by the Science Museum Library; many of them cooperate under the auspices of the six subject groups of Aslib; they are active in the local schemes of cooperation between public libraries and industry, of which those based on Sheffield and the West London area are the most active; the various subject area schemes in London—law, philosophy and theology, medicine—are mainly supported by special libraries.¹⁸

A notable indication of an increasing awareness on the part of the major research libraries has been seen in the founding of SCONUL (Standing Conference of National and University Libraries). This body has become closely identified with the work of the Sub-Committee on Background Material of the Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation, which is collaborating with the National Central Library on the recording of the holdings of pre-1800 publications in about sixty large libraries of all types. A number of these libraries have assumed responsibility for coverage of certain pre-1800 periods and this is indeed the one national scheme of cooperative provision that is in operation.

National coverage has however received much attention. One of the most significant recommendations of the Conference on Scientific Information, called by the Royal Society in 1948, was concerned with the need for "extending access to a greater proportion of the world's literature" and "co-operation between libraries with the object of reducing undesirable duplication."¹⁹ Early in 1949 a Sub-Committee

on the Co-operative Provision of Books, Periodicals and Related Material in Libraries was set up by the Library Research Committee of the Library Association, with its terms of reference based largely on the recommendations of the Royal Society's Conference. At an early stage, however, it was decided not to confine attention to the fields of science and technology but to attempt to consider the whole field of knowledge. An "interim report" was issued before the end of 1949, putting forward a national plan for cooperative provision, involving the participation of many libraries of almost all types.²⁰ Esterquest found that to most British librarians the plan "was somewhat staggering in its scope."²¹ Certainly it met with a granite-like indifference. Even an attempt at pilot projects in the fields of engineering and the fine arts had to be abandoned owing to lack of support from the libraries concerned. A second "interim report" appeared four years later.²² This recommended a piecemeal approach to the problem on a subject basis and at the same time considered the situation that was developing as a result of the various "coverage" schemes then being initiated at regional, local, and subject levels. In 1957 the Sub-Committee issued its Final Report.²³ Although Part II, described as a statement of policy, contains much that is of interest, the report as a whole must be regarded as a confession of failure after forty-one meetings of the Sub-Committee over a period of nearly nine years.

The "statement of policy" in the Final Report welcomes the proposal to set up a National Science Lending Library, as recommended by the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy in its Eighth Annual Report (1954-55) and Ninth Annual Report (1955-56). In point of fact the central government, through its Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, had given its blessing to a National Lending Library for Science and Technology before the Final Report of the Sub-Committee was issued.²⁴ The location and precise functions of this new library have yet to be decided but D. J. Urquhart, who has been placed in charge of the initial planning, has left the library world in no doubt at all as to the government's intentions. Great Britain is soon to have a completely new lending library in the fields of science and technology; and material, mainly foreign periodicals, is already being brought together in the temporary headquarters in London.²⁵ Much has still to be worked out, not the least is the relationship between the National Lending Library for Science and Technology and the national interlending system, with its various subject specialization schemes. The position of the Science Museum Library will also have

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to be reviewed. The possible establishment of other national lending libraries notably in the fields of medicine and the social sciences is now receiving attention.

Library cooperation in Great Britain would seem, therefore, to have reached a critical stage. Much of the old "national system of free cooperation" will have to go. Its achievements have not been negligible, but as a means of attaining the objective of an "organised national service" it has proved itself quite inadequate. The old order is already yielding place to new in science and technology. This may soon happen in other fields. If it does the whole library scene in Great Britain will be transformed.

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Cooperation on the Continent

RUDOLF JUCHHOFF

COOPERATION AMONG LIBRARIES has been for some time a characteristic trait of many continental European countries. Whereas in Germany, especially in Prussia, cooperative cataloging and interlibrary loan service were well established before 1914, in other countries library cooperation developed during the inter-war years. Since 1945 cooperation, even in countries that have entered this field of library activity only lately, has made great progress.

Germany. As early as 1893, under the powerful influence of the Prussian ministry of education, an interlibrary loan service had been established between the then Royal Library in Berlin and the Prussian university libraries. Its regulations were of the most liberal kind, the reader paying a nominal charge for each book that came into his hands. This system was gradually extended to all other state-supported libraries, including libraries for the teaching staff of high-schools, and even to libraries outside the controlling power of the state. Other Länder of Imperial Germany, like Bavaria and Saxony, followed the example set by Prussia, but only after the inflationary chaos following World War I was a unitary system comprising the whole of Germany established. The Deutsche Leihverkehrsordnung of March, 1924, has become the Magna Charta of the German interlibrary loan service and has survived the constitutional changes of the post-war years. It was redrafted in 1951, extending the right of participation to a great number of public and special libraries. The number of library participants now totals about 400.

In principle, a reader in any one of the libraries participating in the scheme is entitled to borrow books from any other library, provided those books are needed for scholarly work or for professional and vocational purposes. Although the library receiving a book pays the postage both ways, the individual reader is charged a very small

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fee of between the fifth and the third part of a mark (which is about ten cents in American currency), but differing as yet in the various Länder.

Interlibrary loans are a necessary feature of modern library activity, as no single library is any longer in a position to buy or procure by means of exchange all books that may be needed some day by one of its readers for special research. But in contemporary Germany the interlibrary loan service fulfills another function that explains the vast number of books that are being sent to and fro among hundreds of libraries: supplementing the stocks of libraries that have suffered great losses during the last war and are only able to build up an adequate collection of books in the course of many years. This makes the daily work in the interlibrary lending departments of many libraries a formidable task. Cologne University and Municipal Library, for example, during the fiscal year 1956, sent 23,378 volumes to other German libraries and received 9,291 from them. In the same period the libraries of the Land North Rhine-Westphalia (only for this region the latest statistics are as yet available) sent 83,000 volumes to libraries all over Germany and received 90,000, the latter number reflecting the fact that two of the three university libraries of the region have suffered heavily during the war.

It would be a foolish thing indeed to try to get a book for a reader, say, in a town on the southern border of Germany from a library in the extreme north of the Federal Republic, if the same book was actually in a library not far off. So the system has been subdivided into six regions. All application forms are sent around those libraries within the region that are most likely to have the desired book in their stacks. In some cases the book may be found in the first library, in other cases the application form may wander from one library to another without a copy being traced within the region. At the end of the round it has to pass the "Schlussbibliothek," the most important library of the region, which acts as intermediary between its own region and all the others. This library is responsible for the correctness of all data should the application form be forwarded to a library in an adjacent region. Of course, no regional circulation is expected in cases where a location is secured by means of published catalogs or bibliographical tools which give locations. In such cases direct application to the library owning the requested book, irrespective of regional boundaries, is self-evident.

On the whole this must seem a rather clumsy method, and it cer-

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tainly is. So, complaints of scholars wondering at the length of time between ordering and receiving a book have been common. In many cases it takes weeks before a copy has been located and can be forwarded to the library that sent the application form around. But the system for years has supplied to professors, students, and to research workers of all kinds thousands and thousands of books they urgently needed.

German librarians have been intent on thinking of a faster and more reliable method of supplying books from one library to another. They well remembered the wonderful tool for locating books, the Prussian *Gesamtkatalog*, that, from the letter B onward, had been being expanded into a German *Gesamtkatalog* during the process of editing the manuscript union catalog at the Berlin State Library for publication. Printing had already stopped during the war. The manuscript card catalog had been removed from air-raid-ble Berlin to the country-side. By 1947 it became clear that it had to be reckoned a war casualty. With no prospect of ever seeing the series of printed volumes completed new thinking about union-cataloging had to be done. There were put forward good reasons for building up regional union catalogs instead of one national union catalog—even the Prussian *Gesamtkatalog* had been a regional union catalog, if on the grand scale. Not only did constitutional considerations point into this direction—the various *Länder* being sovereign in the field of cultural policy—but library policy as well. Whereas it would be very difficult to get hundreds of middle-sized and small libraries all over the Federal Republic to cooperate with one single center, they would be ready to cooperate with the regional center well known to them. If every region of the interlibrary loan system had its own regional union catalog to rely on, the loan service could be run according to standards necessary in our time. Of course there would be a good deal of overlapping, but less than is commonly assumed.

Things are actually developing upon this pattern. There are now in the Federal Republic and West Berlin seven regional union catalogs in various states of progress. Each of them, when completed, will contain from two to three million titles. This number compares fairly well with the national union catalogs of smaller countries like Switzerland and the Netherlands. The union catalogs of North Rhine-Westphalia at the University and Municipal Library at Cologne, of Hesse at the University and Municipal Library at Frankfort, and of Berlin at the Library of the Free University are nearing completion.

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Work has begun on the union catalogs of Baden-Württemberg at the State Library at Stuttgart, of Bavaria at the State Library at Munich, of Lower-Saxony at the State and University Library at Göttingen, and of the three Länder Hamburg, Bremen, and Schleswig-Holstein at the State and University Library at Hamburg. As the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, the self-governing corporation of scientific institutions of all descriptions, is interested in the smooth working of the interlibrary loan system for the benefit of research workers, considerable funds have recently been forthcoming from this body for the speeding up of the work on regional union catalogs. It is expected that all union catalogs will be working effectively no later than 1960. From that date the regional union catalogs will not only serve as centers of the interlibrary loan service of their respective regions, but among them will constitute a national system of locating books and of bibliographical information.

The importance of regional union catalogs as now developing in Germany may be seen from the working of the union catalog of North Rhine-Westphalia: all application forms for books not in a local library but requested by a reader from outside are being sent to the regional center at Cologne where they are being looked up in the union catalog. Recently, applications for books and volumes of periodicals are coming in at a daily rate of about 180, about seventy per cent of them being represented by one or more locations. This seems a rather good result since the catalog lists only about 1,500,000 titles up to now. It is doubtless due to the fact that, small as the number of libraries actually participating in the scheme may seem—about thirty-six—they are fairly representative of all branches of knowledge, ranging from the three university libraries and the library of the technical university of the land to highly specialized libraries, from theology to mining and metallurgy. Applications for books not located are returned for the local library to decide whether the request is to be forwarded to another region. In two or three years' time these requests will doubtless go around the several regional centers according to a well-devised pattern. Before long a first step in this direction will be taken in that the regional center at Cologne will ask the Frankfurt center of the Hessian union catalog to check those requests against its own titlecards that have been unsuccessfully handled at Cologne, and vice versa.

Mention must yet be made of the Sammelkatalog at Frankfurt, now housed in the Municipal and University Library, a union catalog

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of selected libraries in the German-speaking countries of central Europe. It was practically a one man achievement, that of Dr. Berg-hoeffer, then director of the Rothschild Library. Starting on his self-appointed task in 1891 he was the first to make use, on the grand scale, of printed catalogs for the compilation of a union catalog, a method followed later by Dutch and Swiss librarians. His aim was to get together as many different titles as possible from as many printed catalogs as possible of libraries specializing in some field or other all over Germany, Austria, and German-speaking Switzerland. Later on many libraries sent their accessions lists, printed or multigraphed, for incorporation of their titles in the Sammelkatalog, that in 1939 contained several million titles. Though lacking the bibliographical precision of the Berlin Gesamtkatalog it in a way supplemented it as an instrument for guiding interlibrary loans especially in the southern part of Germany. While its value has been diminished by the destruction, whole or partial, of many libraries that are represented as the only locations on many of its cards, the sheer mass of titles brought together will nevertheless yield good results in many cases of inquiries. The Sammelkatalog will continue to fulfill its supplementary function, in the future along with the system of regional union catalogs of the Länder.

When the inflationary period after World War II came to an end in midsummer 1948 and foreign books again became available, the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, anxious to secure at least one copy of every foreign book of some importance for professors and research workers, initiated through its committee on library matters (Bibliotheksausschuss which consisted of four professors and eight librarians), a scheme of subject specialization in the field of foreign publications since 1939. About ninety subjects (Sondersammelgebiete) were allocated to some thirty-six university libraries, libraries of technical universities (Technische Hochschulen) and some special libraries. The Forschungsgemeinschaft subsidized the purchase of foreign books and periodicals in the allocated subjects on these conditions: (1) that the book purchasing funds of the libraries allocated a special subject may not be lessened in view of the subsidies, and (2) that books and periodicals acquired in this way are liable to be lent to other libraries for the use of research workers. After initial difficulties the system of cooperative book purchasing under the guidance of a central agency is working well. The grants of the Forschungsgemeinschaft are generous. Together with its own funds each library participating in the

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scheme is able to purchase all foreign books of a scholarly standard in its special field. In this way the thirty-six libraries represent a really universal library of modern scientific literature accessible through the interlibrary loan service to any research worker anywhere.

The same applies to foreign periodicals. About 7,000 periodicals, other than the standard ones in both the humanities and the sciences, are subscribed to by the Forschungsgemeinschaft and distributed to the libraries responsible for the Sondersammelgebiete. They have been chosen from a far greater number by a subcommittee of the Bibliotheksausschuss assisted by specialists in the various fields of research and, of course, are supplemented from time to time by new titles. An index of these periodicals, giving titles only but no locations, has just been published as V.A.Z. (*Verzeichnis ausländischer Zeitschriften*, 1957). The foreign standard periodicals in the humanities and in the sciences, so far as fundamental research is concerned, are assumed to be currently received by each university library on its own financial responsibility, and the more technical periodicals in the field of science and technology by the libraries of the technical universities. In some interlibrary loan regions these libraries have made arrangements to see that, within their region, about 1,800 foreign standard periodicals are subscribed to regularly, most of them of course by more than one library.

One condition the Forschungsgemeinschaft attached to its subsidies was that all books and periodicals should be accessible to all German research workers. In 1949, when the Forschungsgemeinschaft began its work, union cataloging had only been started in one or two Länder. To know exactly where the foreign books so much sought after were to be had would be welcomed by research workers and librarians. Moreover to know what books had been acquired by other libraries and especially by those responsible for a Sondersammelgebeit would help librarians in their choice of foreign books. Both these viewpoints led to the publication of the union catalog of foreign books (*Zentralkatalog der ausländischen Literatur*) in 1951. It is formally attached to the regional union catalog of North Rhine-Westphalia, but financially dependent on the subscriptions of about 120 libraries. In monthly numbers the recent acquisitions since 1950 of about eighty libraries sending duplicates of their catalog entries to Cologne are registered according to subjects. Well over 20,000 titles are brought to the knowledge of librarians and students every year. The annual alphabetical index giving all additional locations assembled during the year

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has proved an efficient instrument for all lending departments. Besides, about 100,000 titles of foreign books published between 1939 and 1949 acquired by German libraries have been indexed in two alphabetical series between 1951 and 1955.

Whether the *Zentralkatalog der ausländischen Literatur* will still be necessary when the system of regional union catalogs is working efficiently must remain a matter for future deliberations.

As regards foreign periodicals since 1939, a union list is being compiled at the Westdeutsche Bibliothek at Marburg. Many hundreds of libraries including academic, institutional, and industrial are cooperating. A provisional list was multigraphed two years ago and has already proved indispensable for the daily work in German libraries. The final edition comprising about 35,000 entries is due for publication in 1958. The editorial office at Marburg will become a permanent one for collecting additional titles and locations and for preparing supplementary editions.

In East Germany the tradition of the Berlin State Library is continued by the Deutsche Staatsbibliothek as it is now called. For several years, monthly lists of new acquisitions of the scholarly libraries of the DDR (German Democratic Republic) have been published in two series: science and technology on the one hand, and social sciences on the other. Cumulative yearly volumes are part of the scheme but only the 1954 volume has appeared to date. Regional union catalogs are in progress and the one for the region of Sachsen-Anhalt, with its center at Halle, is advancing rapidly. A union list of foreign periodicals on the same plan as the Marburg list is in progress for publication.

Borrowing and lending of books between the libraries of the two parts of Germany is on a large scale.

Switzerland. Cooperation is most intense in this small country with a population of over four million, and almost 400 libraries, large, small, and very small. If you can visit most of your colleagues with only a few hours' journey and if you are likely to meet most of them at the annual congress of your professional association, the cooperative spirit is apt to be kept alive. It certainly is alive among the Swiss librarians. Considering that with the exception of the Swiss National Library (Schweizerische Landesbibliothek) there is no central federal authority in matters of library policy—any more than in other field of educational activity—and that conditions in the various cantons differ markedly from one another, what Swiss librarians, mostly through the agency of their professional association (Vereinigung Schweizerischer

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Bibliothekare), have achieved in the field of interlibrary loan and union catalog must be estimated very highly.

A characteristic trait is the participation of numerous non-public libraries in cooperative library activities: libraries of learned societies and clubs, ecclesiastical libraries, libraries of industrial firms, and even private individuals. All these book resources are available through the inter-urban loan service (Interurbaner Leihverkehr), for which a standard application form has been introduced.

But where does one apply for a book not on the shelves of one's own library? No difficulty arises in the case of modern Swiss publications and books dealing with Switzerland. They are sure to be found in the Schweizerische Landesbibliothek at Bern that was founded in 1895. As for foreign books and Swiss books to the end of the nineteenth century, a union catalog has been built up in connection with the Landesbibliothek. Work on the Swiss union catalog (Schweizerischer Gesamtkatalog) was begun in 1928. The method followed at first was that of cutting titles from printed catalogs and accessions lists and having them pasted on catalog cards. As many Swiss libraries already had had their catalogs printed work started at a good pace. Of course, all libraries cooperating in the scheme pledged themselves to send title copies of their current acquisitions of foreign publications. By 1939, 180 libraries were cooperating and about a million and a half catalog cards had been assembled. Since then, besides taking in an increasing number of new titles from an increasing number of libraries, the main task has been to cover those titles in the various libraries that had been cataloged after the publication of a printed catalog, but before cooperation with the union catalog had begun. Today the union catalog contains well over 2,000,000 titles representing the contents, wholly or partly, of about 350 libraries. Applications are received at a daily rate of about 125, two-thirds of which are dealt with successfully. Only sixty per cent of the applications by post come from libraries, forty per cent being inquiries by private persons.

There are two important lacunae to fill before the Swiss union catalog can be called a truly national union catalog, i.e., to incorporate the titles of all books acquired before 1928 by two very important libraries, the university libraries at Basel and Bern. There were no printed catalogs to cull from and no funds available for transcribing titles. Perhaps the filming process will ease the problem of incorporating those titles that would enhance the usefulness of the union catalog considerably.

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The catalog, after much thinking and many experiments, has been split up into a number of alphabetical series comprising authors, and anonymous titles containing a personal name (Personenreihe), plain anonymous titles, anonymous titles containing a geographical name as a convenient catchword, oriental books, and periodicals. The last named series is especially valuable as a means of locating single volumes of the vast number of foreign periodicals strewn over hundreds of libraries. It is being constantly kept up to date. It has furnished the basic material for the compilation of the *Verzeichnis ausländischer Zeitschriften in schweizerischen Bibliotheken (Répertoire des périodiques étrangers secus par les bibliothèques suisses)*, 4th ed., 1955), though double the number of libraries have collaborated to achieve this well known and much used union list of periodicals containing about 35,000 titles.

Netherlands. As in Germany there is a long tradition of liberal lending of books both among libraries and to private persons outside the local library. Up to the beginning of this century locating books was to a certain extent, if not easy, at any rate possible by looking up the printed catalogs that, as in Switzerland, many libraries had been able to publish. But very important libraries, like Leyden University Library, had never had their catalog printed, and the great advantage for the quick locating of books by assembling the titles of many libraries into one single alphabet had been demonstrated by the efficient working of the Berlin *Gesamtkatalog*.

Plans for a union catalog supplementing the catalog of the Royal Library at the Hague had been made by the director of the Royal Library as early as 1919. Actual work on the catalog, known as the *Centrale Catalogus (C.C.)*, was begun in 1922. If Leyden University Library had no printed catalog in book form, it had been among the first libraries to make use of the printing process for its sheaf catalogs. Entries were printed on sheets, cut and mounted on slips. Fortunately, spare sheets were available for the union catalog to cut, mount, and file. In this way a broad basis was achieved on which to build the whole structure. The titleslips of Utrecht University Library and some other libraries were incorporated in the same way, always discarding duplicates. In the case of printed catalogs two copies had to be procured and handled in the same manner as did Berghoef and the Swiss. Other libraries sent transcripts of titles. Including the titles of new acquisitions that are coming in at regular intervals from over fifty libraries, the *Centrale Catalogus* contains today more than

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2,000,000 titlecards, thus ranging in the same class as the Swiss union catalog.

Periodicals are listed in a union catalog of their own, the Centrale Catalogus van Periodieken (C.C.P.), containing about 100,000 slips. The number of libraries contributing to this union list is about 180, a good many industrial and commercial libraries among them, that do not, as a rule, cooperate with the Centrale Catalogus of books at the Hague but instead with the Central Technical Catalog of books at the University of Technology at Delft, a specialized union catalog containing about 170,000 titles of technical books contributed by sixty-five special libraries.

Postal applications sent to the Royal Library amount to about 300 daily. They are checked first against the alphabetical catalog of the library, only those titles not to be found there are looked up in C.C. and C.C.P. On the average eighty per cent of the applications are dealt with successfully. In these cases the forms get the symbols of the libraries stamped on and are sent around to those indicated on the titlecard.

France. Although in France loans between university libraries were introduced as early as 1886, for a long time loans were practically restricted to manuscripts and rare books and duplicates of modern books. As French scholarly activities are centralized to a high degree in Paris with its magnificent research libraries of all kinds and as many professors of the provincial universities are wont to go to Paris for a time to work in those libraries the need of a liberal loan service was not widely felt. But things have gradually changed. In 1953-54 more than 7,000 books were on loan within the system that comprised state and municipal libraries, the university libraries being, of course, its backbone. As a state agency the interlibrary loan service is charged no postage fees, thus enabling the individual reader to get his book free of any expense.

In the field of union catalogs France is a newcomer, but it has made great strides quite recently. The expansion of international research and book production seems to require, as in other countries, quick information on foreign books and periodicals available in the country's libraries. In 1952 a union catalog of foreign books was started on two levels. At the library of each provincial university, as the center of the *région académique*, a record is being kept of all foreign books acquired from that date by all scholarly libraries, academic seminar, and departmental libraries of the region, so that interlibrary loans of

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modern foreign books will, it is hoped, to some degree, be successfully dealt with within the region. A duplicate of every title inserted into the regional union catalog is sent to the Bibliothèque Nationale where the Catalogue collectif des ouvrages étrangers is kept to date as the sum total of the regional catalogs. Thus, if a requested book is not found within a region, the application is forwarded to the Catalogue collectif at the Bibliothèque Nationale, where a copy may be located in another region.

As regards foreign periodicals a union file of current numbers (*Inventaire permanent des périodiques en cours*) was started at the Bibliothèque Nationale in 1953. One thousand seven hundred libraries, national, provincial, municipal, academic, and special, are cooperating in this new venture that has already listed well over 20,000 titles of current foreign periodicals and has proved invaluable for quick information which is needed especially by research workers in the field of science and technology.

There is also in progress the big union list of periodicals, French and foreign, in the libraries of the Paris region and those of the provincial universities up to 1939. A supplement covering the period 1940-53 will follow soon. This list is being multigraphed, thus, besides being a finding list for home use, will become a valuable bibliographical tool even for librarians outside of France.

Italy. Since the beginning of the 1950's the Italian library scene has been gradually becoming dominated by the ambitious scheme of an all-Italian union-catalog (*Catalogo Unico*) that, when completed according to plans, would bring together in one alphabetical catalog the titles of books in about one hundred Italian libraries. A special feature of this vast enterprise is that the books in the co-operating libraries are, for a large part, recataloged in order that the titlecopies may fit into the proposed union catalog of high standard quality. The catalog will be housed in the Biblioteca Nazionale at Rome, a supervised copy of its alphabetical catalog forming the basis of the whole. A beginning has been made with the books in eight Roman state libraries, i.e., the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale, Casanatense, Angelica, Alessandrina, Vallicelliana, Biblioteca Medica, Biblioteca di Storia Moderna, and Biblioteca di Archeologie e Storia dell' Arte. Modern technical appliances will be used to get through the immense task. Punched cards and selection machines will facilitate many operations, e.g., inserting large quantities of cards in the right order into the ever-expanding basic alphabet. The system

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adopted, though independently, is that used by the Library of Congress for compiling the *Union List of Serials* and its supplements.

If a catalog on cards of the international size is the ultimate form aimed at, as an intermediary stage the union catalog of the above named Roman libraries (Catalogo Collettivo Romano) is being edited on sheets each containing twelve titles corresponding to the card size. Letters A and B have already been completed in this way. This nucleus of the national union catalog will be useful to bibliographers and especially to the Italian librarians working through their own title material for inclusion in the Catalogo Unico. One of the already visible results of the enthusiasm aroused among our Italian colleagues by the idea of the Catalogo Unico is the energy bestowed upon improving the catalogs of the individual libraries. At the big national libraries at Florence, Milan, and Naples hundreds of thousands of books have already been recataloged—a valuable contribution to the union catalog.

If at some future date all titles contained in about one hundred Italian libraries will be represented in a union catalog on cards in a near-print form that have been produced in a central office, why not centralize alphabetical cataloging of the new acquisitions of the co-operating libraries? Work on the Catalogo Unico has led to the prospect of printed titlecards of Italian publications edited and distributed by the Biblioteca Nazionale at Florence and of foreign publications by the Biblioteca Nazionale at Rome, thus saving time and staff work in many libraries.



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COOPERATION IS ONE OF THE FUNDAMENTAL motivations of human society. Books themselves are a kind of co-operation, being an extension of individual experience in time and space. Their wide uses and their unanticipatable values have led society to create libraries as a means of having at hand the experience and wisdom of its members, today and yesterday, at home and abroad. Librarians, who are presumably in the business because they recognize the universal and lasting values of books and their analogs, are by nature cooperators. The whole history of the modern library movement in the United States and elsewhere is a record of cooperation: the sharing of experience for the sake of better-operating libraries and of books for the benefit of the libraries' users. The library activity, however, to which "cooperation" is usually applied as a specific name is that which leads to the association of a book with a person having particular need for it. Thus, interlibrary cooperation is the expansion of the service philosophy of the individual library to comprehend a number of libraries.

It is true that libraries have displayed energy in cooperating with publishers (as through the American Library Association Committee on Reprints) and with each other in the economical purchase of materials (as under the Ohio State plan), in storage (Midwest Inter-Library Center and Hampshire Inter-Library Center), in centralized cataloging (provided for more than half a century by the Library of Congress) in the exchange of staff members, and in the provision of consultants and advisers; but, valuable as these kinds of cooperation are, they are incidental, rather than directly related, to the central task of bringing book and man together.

The activities of primary cooperation can be subsumed under three general headings which can be alliteratively termed assisting, acquiring, and advertising.

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The reader is helped to get the right book by having it brought to him, by being sent to it, or by securing an image of the book he desires. Most emphasis in the past has been placed on the book-to-man process, or interlibrary lending, but increasingly the transmission of an image of the book to man has become important, and copying by various photographic and transfer processes has begun to play a significant role in library cooperation. Man-to-book, or serving the individual after he arrives from the sphere of influence of another library, has had a lesser part to play, but is one of increasing importance.

Before book and man can be brought together, however, the book must be acquired and here libraries have developed notable projects under several headings: they have acquired jointly for the use of a cooperating group, e.g., the Association of Research Libraries Foreign Newspaper Project; they have bought according to a mutually exclusive pattern, as in the Farmington Plan; or have encouraged each other in the development of specialties, as illustrated by the innumerable microfilm projects for the duplicating of rare or bulky materials on a limited basis; finally, libraries have for many years carried on a profitable exchange of materials with each other, derived chiefly from the publications produced by parent bodies such as a university or a learned society.

It is impossible to exploit the results of acquisition, whether cooperative or otherwise, in the interest of the needy client without advertising, which may take a variety of forms. There are joint or union catalogs, such as the National Union Catalog, the catalogs of bibliographical centers, and that familiar monster, the *Union List of Serials*. There have been, for generations, and generations, individual lists or catalogs of whole libraries or special collections, or of subjects. There are summaries of holdings on a locality in a region, exemplified by the various compilations of regional resources. And, finally, there is advertising in reverse—inquiry, the SOS of the interlibrary lending fraternity.

It is interesting to speculate on the degree to which technology makes possible the development of interlibrary cooperation. Certainly it was the railway mail service that lay behind interlibrary loan success, a success nowadays enhanced by the availability of air parcel post and air freight. If one considers the cooperative opportunities realized in the field of unique materials, it is easy to see the role played by technology. Manuscripts, by definition, are unique and comprise an

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important segment of source materials for a variety of studies. Their singularity limits ownership of originals to a single agency. Access for generations, consequently, was via the man-to-book method, but it always was possible to employ an agent to transcribe unique records by hand, thus producing an additional copy. Whether the technological development of carbon paper ever was used by a transcriber to produce two handwritten copies simultaneously, history does not record, but certainly the advent of the typewriter, coupled with carbon paper, did produce this situation, and manuscript collections do reveal some instance of what appears to be cooperative efforts, based on the technology of typewriter and carbon paper, whereby two or more libraries could contribute to the cost of transcription. The advent of the photostat machine, however, raised the acquisitions of unique copies to the level of facsimile, eliminating the frailty of transcriber and expediting the copying process, but the step made by means of microfilm was the greatest and the most impressive because of the comparative cheapness of microfilm and the greater compactness of the cameras. It would appear that ingenuity has rather fully exploited the existing technological devices of transportation and duplication in the interests of cooperation. We can, however, hopefully turn to the immediate future for new technical developments.

Considering the future, the development of interlibrary cooperation is a landscape bright with opportunity but at times obscured by cloudy problem patches. These three problems, with further discussion, may be listed as assisting, acquiring, and advertising.

Assisting. Something is better than nothing and a book accessible through interlibrary loan is better than no book, but the impatient user finds it a poor second to a book now. If the cooperative use of materials is to be successful, speed of access is an essential element. Charles Babbage, that ingenious Victorian, concluded after examining Britain's early postal system that the real cost in handling the mails was not in transporting them from one town to another, but rather in gathering and distributing. The efficiency of the great and traditional cooperative device of interlibrary loan might be substantially improved through the application of more man hours by borrower and lender.

No library has yet fully exploited the capacities of television as a means of transmitting library materials. Offhand, and at the moment, it would appear that conventional television would do little more than satisfy initial curiosity about a book or enable a distant user to read short passages as the book is displayed before a television camera in

the owning library. But this is surely not the limit of televised transmission. Stanford Research Institute is investigating for the A. B. Dick Company the possibility of televised transmission by means of an apparatus which would include the option of converting the screened image to a paper copy. Assuming that the photographic process involved could proceed as rapidly as pages might be turned, one is then thrown back on a problem referred to by Verner Clapp of the Council on Library Resources, Inc., namely, that of an automatic, mechanical page turner capable of operating at economically high speeds.

Perhaps as important as rapid visual transmission over long distances is the development of a process which would produce rapidly and cheaply a reproduction of the printed and written page from bound volumes in a form legible to the naked eye. Here an appropriate, inexpensive sensitive paper or other substance capable of making rapidly legible, transmittable copies is needed. Processes like RCA's "Electro-fax" offer hope along this line. Along with this sensitive substance is required an automatic photographic process to reduce labor costs. Given these facilities, scarce library materials unavailable in the open market to a practical degree could be duplicated on request as readily as microfilm positives can be printed on an automatic printer.

Closely linked to the problems of copying library materials is the imperative need for relaxation of tight copyright legislation. For some years, the full impact of these restrictions has been moderated by traditional practices growing out of the so-called "gentleman's agreement" which permits a learned institution to make for a scholar a single and non-profit bearing reproduction of a copyrighted work in lieu of lending the publication itself. In England, copyright restrictions have discouraged London's new Science Museum Library from assuming that much of its interlibrary lending load could be transferred to copying. There are, however, some indications that the interpretive regulations of the new Copyright Act shortly to be issued by the British Board of Trade, while they might increase the cost of photoreproduction, will expand the range of materials that may be copied by libraries. It is also interesting to note the recent decision of the National Library of Medicine in Washington to exploit copying as a substitute for lending.

Taking the man to the book will probably be used increasingly, especially in order to permit the use of collections. This change will,

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no doubt, come slowly because of budget difficulties, and the problems associated with the assignment of funds to applicants.

Acquiring. It seems reasonable to expect an increase in projects modeled on the A.R.L. Foreign Newspaper Project, where a number of libraries associate themselves for the purpose of acquiring a common pool of material which they share in ownership and use, and a decline in limited joint publication projects, as by microfilm. Exchange of publications may be expected to diminish because of rising publication costs. Universities have followed, in their research and curricular, the national concern with the economics and politics of the whole globe and have added a cultural interest. To meet these widening obligations the limited plans for cooperative acquisition in Russia will have to be enlarged and extended to the rest of Asia and to India. Africa, for most libraries, can wait a little. The Farmington Plan is an attack on current European and South American output—but there is no Farmington Plan for retrospective materials from these areas.

Advertising. At the moment it appears that the sun of regional union catalogs in the United States is setting. The great cost of establishing and maintaining them, borne initially by the relief programs of the Depression, militate against the creation of new regional catalogs. Rather, emphasis will probably continue upon the perfection of the National Union Catalog and the development of auxiliary services relating to it, such as the expedited handling of requests. This course is likely to be followed in Europe as well, with Germany an exception through preference for regional union catalogs.

The development of individual catalogs on the model of those issued by the Library of Congress has been hopefully approached at Harvard as a means of coping with the growing mass of cards in a central catalog. The many technical problems and the great cost incident to this device—as illustrated by the British Museum's recent problems—suggest that it will be successful only in extreme cases. Handy as a catalog-in-hand may be, the resources of rapid communication now available cast doubt on general developments in this area. Yet, from time to time, important catalogs will certainly be offered, as, for instance, the forthcoming publication of Columbia's Avery Memorial Architectural Library catalog.

Summaries of resources appear to be more valuable as the means of focusing the attention of a bibliographically impoverished region on its predicament than as a means of discovering the locus of a wanted

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book or collection. One would not expect this type of advertisement to flourish in the future.

Inquiry—the obverse of advertisement—will remain the chief instrument of interlibrary borrowing. It seems probable that more attention will be given by libraries concerned about borrowing to the organizing of the records of other libraries' acquisitions—those "advertisements" which take the form of catalogs, union lists, local bibliographies, etc., so as to refine the process of identifying the wanted book—and to the servicing of requests for materials not owned at home. Again, we note the cost factor necessarily involved, which includes not only personnel but also the cost of exploiting rapid communication devices such as telephone and teletype.

Impressive as are the circumstances supporting cooperation, it must be pointed out that there are important counter influences. For instance, the enlargement of groups requiring a wide variety of books applies to the clientele of any given library as well as in general, and certainly will raise the pressure of the local demand, thus offsetting in some degree the library's ability to respond to demands from outside its clientele. Generally speaking, it must be agreed that a large library is more likely to satisfy a wider variety of needs than a small one; consequently libraries and institutions supporting libraries which are relatively wealthy are unlikely to forego opportunities to acquire materials which by some kind of plan or cooperative agreement might more appropriately go elsewhere. "Immediacy" (that is, the great convenience of having the books in which one is interested at hand rather than scattered and accessible by cooperative means) is perhaps incalculable as a factor, but certainly works against cooperation. Another facet of this idea is competition. Librarians manifest pride of possession and jealousy as well as do other humans, and institutions are not unaware of the values of ownership as an asset. This is especially true of universities which are engaged increasingly in competition for the best students, the best researchers, the best teachers. No library ever created research by itself, but, on the other hand, the absence of a library which goes beyond the immediate needs of its clientele is a powerful deterrent to investigation. Consequently, there are substantial conflicts between the idea of the library as an asset and the library as altruist.

Finally, it should be noted that interlibrary cooperation will not produce economies except in a special sense. It is true that cooperation may inhibit the rate of cost increase, but its primary function is to

The Potentialities: Some Notes in Conclusion

promote access. It seems apparent that one of the principal lines of development in the field of cooperation in the future will be the appropriation of substantial sums of money explicitly to the purpose of cooperation as a substitute for local acquisition.



Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

April, 1958, *Legal Aspects of Library Administration*. Editor: John B. Kaiser, Director, Newark Public Library.

July, 1958, *Trends in American Book Publishing*. Editor: Frank L. Schick, Assistant Librarian, Wayne State University.

October, 1958, *Aspects of Library Public Relations*. Editor: Len Arnold, Public Relations Director, American Library Association.

The numbers of LIBRARY TRENDS issued prior to the present one dealt successively with college and university libraries, special libraries, school libraries, public libraries, libraries of the United States government, cataloging and classification, scientific management in libraries, the availability of library research materials, personnel administration, services to readers, library associations in the United States and British Commonwealth, acquisitions, national libraries, special materials and services, conservation of library materials, state and provincial libraries in the United States and Canada, American books abroad, mechanization in libraries, rare book libraries and collections, circulation services, and research in librarianship.

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